The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 24, 1902.

The Week.

Common sense and common decency won a victory in the Senate on April 16, when the Platt amendment to the Chinese Exclusion Bill was passed, in place of the vicious measure which had been under discussion. Instead of agreeing to a bill which would violate our treaty with China, the Senate has simply voted to continue the existing law until 1904, when the treaty with China expires, and to extend its operation to the Philippine archipelago and our other islands. Bad as is the existing statute in many of its provisions, it is far better than the one proposed, which would have degraded every Chinaman within the United States. If the Senate action prevails, we shall be spared seeing our great Government photographing, cataloguing, and describing Chinamen with more care than dogs that are licensed in great cities. American vessels can still ship Chinese sailors. Teachers and students can come to us from Pekin or any other portion of China, and be treated with some semblance of courtesy and friendliness, and merchants of the Celestial Empire can still enter our portals to buy our goods and increase our trade without finding themselves wholly regarded as criminals.

The Senate having declined to adopt the House Chinese Exclusion Bill, Representative Kahn and other rabid anti-Chinese Congressmen have suddenly discovered that the Senate bill is exactly what they were seeking all the time. Indeed, Mr. Kahn would have us believe that the public does not understand how drastic the Senate measure is. This jaunty way of carrying off the severe rebuke administered by the Senate will not, however, suffice to deceive the country. There is nothing in the present law, bad as it is, that approaches in barbarity the measure of which Mr. Kahn was the sponsor, and the country is to be congratulated on having escaped the disgrace it entailed. The prospect that the Senate bill will be adopted by the House is now of the best, and the friends of fair play must rejoice thereat. But the fact remains that even this compromise is an unworthy one. To Senator Hoar, who had the courage to vote no, and thereby constitute himself a minority of one, the thanks of every lover of independence and justice are due.

The extraordinary vote on the Cuban bill in the House on Friday primarily signified the open humiliation of its Republican leaders. They were trampled upon by a large proportion—more than a third—of their followers in a way quite unexampled in party history. The vote was emphatically a vote of want of confidence in them. In other words, Messrs. Henderson, Payne, Dalzell, and Grosvenor, in assuring the President all these weeks that all would be well if he would only keep his hands off and let them manage everything, were reckoning without their host; and Mr. Roosevelt, in deferring to them, was putting himself in the hands of repudiated leaders. It is absolutely clear now that, if he had thrown himself boldly upon Congress from the first, he could have got a better bill long ago. Through the mistaken notion of making the measure one which could be passed by "a strict party vote," the long delay ends with the spectacle of the party torn and angry, and the bill finally taking form by the aid of Democratic votes. These might have been had at any time for a more generous and timely measure, and thus the practical defeat of the President's Cuban policy averted. So much for clever management and working within your party!

Scarcely less significant is the demonstration made by the upheaval in the House that the tariff question is thrust upon the country and will not down. The Democrats were astute in compelling the Republicans to go on record for or against the Sugar Trust, but the vote striking off the Trust's protection would not have been so triumphant had not the Western Republicans felt the rising storm of indignation among their constituents over any protection for any Trust. Politicians will do well to trim their sails accordingly. Tariff duties which are demonstrably needless, or which benefit only a Trust, have got to go; and if the Republican party does not at once set its hand to the work of abolishing them, the people will put a party in power that can be depended upon to do it. To-day it is the Sugar Trust that is struck at. To-morrow it will be the Steel Trust. Neither one needs an iota of protection, and neither one can have it long. As for the sugar differential, it may at present be used in the Senate to delay still further, and possibly to defeat altogether the Cuban bill, but it has set a precedent from which there will be no turning back. Once more has sugar become a Republican stumbling-block. "Strange that a manufacture," wrote Disraeli of the sugar duties in England of 1847, "which charms infancy and soothes old age, should so frequently occasion political disaster!" The threat of party disaster is written so plainly in last week's vote in the House that the wayfaring Republican cannot fail to perceive it.

Some Washington correspondents still intimate that the President will "do something" to bring order out of the party chaos; but what can he do? The time for him to do something was three months ago. What he chose to do was to put himself in the hands of the House managers, and it is hard to see how their defeat is not his also. Indeed, the bitter talk among Republicans at Washington seems to be directed as much at Mr. Roosevelt as at the inept leaders of the House. Nor will the alarmed Republicans be comforted by reading the President's remarks at the Columbia banquet, in which he brought out again his recipe for real efficiency in public life. An ounce of practice would be worth a pound of preaching just now, they will think. At the outset of this Cuban struggle, the President let it be understood that there were two things he was determined to avoid. One was the moral humiliation of Mr. McKinley in connection with the Porto Rican tariff; the other was such a party rupture as followed the passage of Cleveland's bill for repealing silver purchase. Unfortunately, however, as the case stands, President Roosevelt has ingeniously managed to incur both those forms of odium.

What we are really seeing in this outbreak of Republican dissension is the inherent antagonism of protection to foreign trade. Everybody knows that Cuba offers a great field for American exports, and that the stimulus of free trade or lowered tariffs is all that is necessary to double our Cuban commerce. We have only to look at the immense quickening of our Porto Rican trade, caused by the abolition of customs duties, to see what might be done in Cuba. We now take from Porto Rico three times as many goods as came to us before the Spanish war, and send there five times as great a volume of exports. The latter promise to foot up, in the current fiscal year, no less than $10,000,000 in value. This is but a trifle compared with what might be done in Cuba. But no, says protection, the thing cannot be done if it means touching one of our sacred tariff duties. And the reason that protection has its way, for the time, is the same that Cobden gave, namely, "The protected interests combine and the public does not." We do not say that such a stupid and obstructive protectionism accounts for the whole of the Republican "insurrection" at Washington. Personal elements, no doubt, enter in. Many Republican votes were cast against the organization to express hostility to its policy of letting the tariff, with all its monstrosities, go unrevised except for this minor cut in Cuba's behalf. But behind all, and giving body and cohesion to all,

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was the old protective idea, which dreads foreign trade, and which still has such a hold on the Republican party as to disable it from either intelligently seeking new markets, or governing our dependencies in an enlightened way.

There can be no question that the War Department has been seriously discredited by the recent revelations of the manner in which it so long deceived the country regarding the question of torture by our troops in the Philippines. The story of Sergeant Riley of Northampton, Mass., has produced a most unfavorable impression. It will be remembered that Riley wrote a letter which was published in a Northampton (Mass.) newspaper, over a year ago, telling how he had witnessed the administration of the "water cure" by officers of the regular army, and that the War Department, after long delay, gave out a statement which purported to show that no such torture had been inflicted, and which virtually held Riley up to contempt as a liar. The Boston *Herald* thus characterizes the action of the Department:

"It was inconceivable then that the War Department would resort to such a pettifogging imposture as now seems to be revealed. The questions put to Riley and to the officers of the regiment were ingeniously framed to relate solely to the regiment. Riley's letter did not say that the tortures he had witnessed were committed by the officers and men of the Twenty-sixth Regiment, but by officers and soldiers of the regular army. Therefore, when asked whether he had seen any torture inflicted by the officers of the regiment, he said that he had not. The statement published by Major George Andrews, A. A. G., while strictly true in its statements of the testimony given, was artfully misleading and deceptive in the impression it sought to convey, and did convey, to the country. The War Department 'looked into the matter,' as it now appears, not in order to discover the actual truth, but in order to suppress it and hoodwink the nation."

The fact that the War Department has been thus discredited is in itself a reason for favoring the plan which President Roosevelt has been considering, of ordering a special investigation into this question of torture by men outside the range of military rule. There is the same Secretary of War now that there was when the above outrage was perpetrated; there is no reason to suppose that there is any greater readiness in the Department to bring out the whole truth than there was when the facts in this case were so shamefully tampered with. What reason has the public for confidence that a military investigation now will be straightforward and thorough? The Administration cannot afford to have the slightest suspicion rest upon the inquiry that is to be made, and it is hard to see how such suspicion can be avoided if the inquiry is to be conducted by the same Department which has so grossly deceived the country in the past.

President Roosevelt on Thursday nominated James S. Clarkson for Surveyor of Customs at this port. The selection had the approval of Senator Platt, but the impression seems to be that Mr. Roosevelt was personally responsible for the choice. At any rate, the President is thoroughly familiar with Mr. Clarkson's career, and is properly held to account for the appointment. It is one not fit to be made by a President who believes in civil-service reform, and who professes to have high standards in politics. Mr. Clarkson is known to the country as one of the most unblushing champions of the spoils system to be found in the Republican party. He was appointed First Assistant Postmaster-General by President Harrison in 1889, and soon became known as "the headsman" for the rapidity and recklessness with which he decapitated Democratic postmasters and appointed Republican successors. Not long after his accession it was announced that the number of changes in fourth-class offices reached the great total of 1,012 in a single week. This was at the average of nineteen changes an hour, or one every three minutes from the time Mr. Clarkson reached his office on Monday morning until he left it on Saturday night. In public speech and in written articles Mr. Clarkson championed the spoils system, which he had thus applied. In 1890 he defended "rotation in office" as the strongest assurance of honest and effective administration, and the "clean sweep" every four years as the best guarantee of general interest in public affairs. In the *North American Review* he not only attacked the Civil-Service Commission and its examinations, but denounced the whole merit system.

Mr. Roosevelt was a member of the Civil-Service Commission at the time that Mr. Clarkson was denouncing that body, and considered it his duty to take notice of the attack. In a speech at St. Louis, Mr. Roosevelt said, among other things:

"The Civil-Service Commission is most undoubtedly hostile to Mr. Clarkson and the idea which Mr. Clarkson represents. We should fail in our duty if we were not. We can no more retain the good will of the spoilsman than a policeman who does his duty can retain the good will of the lawbreaker. . . . Mr. Clarkson knows perfectly well, and he cannot keep a straight face and deny it, that during his term of service as First Assistant Postmaster-General he administered that office, and had it administered, as it was administered before him, and as it must be under the spoils system, by turning out all the fourth-class postmasters, competent and incompetent alike, if the people who sought their places had sufficient political backing."

Mr. Clarkson was of Iowa when he was appointed First Assistant Postmaster-General, but he lost his hold in his own State not long after, and some years ago came to New York. He has cut no figure in the political or the business activities of the city. The sole occasion on which he has challenged public attention was when he appeared, a year ago, as the spokesman for a corporation which pushed through the Legislature what came to be known as "the West-Street Grab Bill," which was vetoed by Gov. Odell. He has absolutely no "claim" known to the public for the place now given him—even on the low plane of political activity, for he is without influence in the local Republican machine. What does his appointment mean?

Secretary Long signalizes his approaching retirement by an order destroying the last relic of the spoils system in the Navy Department. Even the "ship-keepers" are now to be under the civil-service rules. A ship-keeper is a sort of watchman on board a ship that has been put out of commission. His duties are not at all martial, and the man seeking the job never imagines that he is going where glory awaits him. Nor is his pay exactly glittering, being two dollars a day. Yet, as Mr. Long remarks, the rush and pressure to secure these positions, usually good only for a month or so, have been terrific. Congressmen by the dozen have each had a dozen candidates for each ship-keeper's berth. But the rules will attend to it all hereafter. What Secretary Long calls "the last fortress of the old system" has now been demolished, as far as the Navy Department is concerned, and office waits on proved merit there from watchmen up. It is with a peculiar grace and, we presume, with special pleasure that the retiring Secretary puts this toothless old survivor of the spoils system out of his misery.

Gov. Odell is quite justified in regarding the annual tax-rate bill passed by the last Legislature, and just signed, as a measure which will deeply impress the people of the State. The direct tax is now reduced to only .13 mill, and would have been done away with entirely but for certain Constitutional requirements which demand this petty sum. It is true that this result is in part due to the fact that a portion of the surplus of past years is to be used this year, in accordance with the recommendations made by the Governor in his annual message. He then pointed out that there was a free balance in the treasury of $8,200,000 which could be used, and he recommended that $4,200,000 of this sum should be applied to the reduction of taxes of the present year. He also added that "the only direct taxation necessary would be the 13-100 of a mill provided for by the Constitution for the sinking fund and the interest on the canal debt." Accordingly we have the lowest direct-tax rate the State has ever seen, and there will still be a surplus

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of $4,000,000 "to come and go on." The Governor draws a comparison between the fiscal operations of the present State Administration and those of the last Democratic Administration—that of Gov. Flower, to which, in passing, he pays a high and deserved compliment. The result of the comparison is a difference of $1,046,714 in economy in favor of the present Administration, after making allowance for the increased charges caused by transferring the care of the insane to the State, and by the increase in the number of the insane. The whole showing is very favorable to the present Administration.

No doubt the Corporation Counsel is right in thinking that there is under the city charter no power to prevent the erection of sky signs. In view of recent legislation on this subject, however, the tone of Mr. Rives's *obiter* is, to say the least, surprising. To say, "This is a free country, and if a man wishes to disfigure his property, he has a right to," is to forget ordinances in Chicago, Buffalo, and Rochester which restrict the size and nature of street signs. We must assume that the Aldermen have no legal right at present to legislate against sky signs, but to say that "it would be an unwarrantable interference with the liberty of the citizens if the Board of Aldermen had the power to prohibit the erection of such signs," is to forget that several English cities, where the sense of personal rights is stronger than it ever was in New York, do precisely prohibit sky signs. One might be tempted to say, too, that the business of the Corporation Counsel is to express what, in his opinion, is law, not what in his feeling is "warrantable" under broad principles of human rights. If the Aldermen of New York city do indeed lack such powers as the authorities of Boston, Chicago, Rochester, Buffalo, Edinburgh, and London freely exercise, it is time that we awake to the situation and seek from the Legislature the ordinary powers of a civilized municipality.

The presence of so distinguished a gathering of American scholars and administrators of institutions of learning in this city on Saturday last was much more than a tribute to the past of Columbia University, or a personal compliment to the new President; it was an expression of confidence and hopefulness in the future of the university. President Butler is not quite in the position of a man who faces a *tabula rasa*—that was very nearly President Barnard's position, and President Low's—but rather in the attitude of one who finds before him a rough draft which must here be rectified, there beautified, and generally perfected. Columbia University to-day is in some respects a grandiose sketch, finished only in parts, for a great university. Its administrators have avoided in the main the crudenesses that have affected the newer institutions, but it is still in the position of a vast mechanism insufficiently manned. Its personnel has not fully entered into the new organization. To achieve this rhythm of men and academic machinery is the delicate task that confronts the new President. He has in the past shown the intelligence, insight, and tact which this task requires. His friends are confident of his success in the difficult endeavor.

As an expression of English disgust with the activities of the United Irish League, the proclamation of the Crimes Act is natural enough. Whether so drastic a measure was either called for by the existing situation, or justified on general principles of policy, is more than doubtful. Unquestionably there has been a revival of boycotting in Ireland, but if crimes of the more serious sort have been committed in any numbers, they certainly have not been reported. The proclamation bears the look of a counter move of the Irish landlords against Mr. T. W. Russell's land-purchase programme, and it has all the more the aspect of a retaliatory movement that it comes at the first moment when the pressure from South Africa seems to diminish. A curious feature of the situation is the fact that the Irish Secretary, Mr. Wyndham, upon whom falls the duty of enforcing the proclamation, only the other day denied the existence of dangerous disorder in Ireland, while a few weeks ago, in a public address, he deprecated seeming to "use the law to strike down political oppression in Ireland," and to "combat proceedings which are comparable to the proceedings of trade-unions in this country." The Irish Nationalists will hardly fail to enlarge upon the text which Mr. Wyndham has furnished them. The Ministry has apparently committed the old blunder of playing into the hands of the agitators.

Confidence in the speedy coming of peace in distracted South Africa seems to be justified by what is now made known respecting the state of the negotiations. That all the Boer chiefs should have gathered for consultation with Gen. Kitchener and Lord Milner; that the terms offered them were at least such that they were not compelled to reject them on sight, but could with dignity refer them back to their followers for a plébiscite; that a practical suspension of hostilities—though not a formal armistice—is to prevail for the next three weeks, while the voting of the burghers is going on; and that Chamberlain should have been silent while Sir Michael Hicks-Beach came forward as the spokesman of the Ministry to praise Boer valor and to express the hope that Dutch and English might soon be living side by side in peace—these are the main facts which encourage us to believe that this bloody and costly and most ignoble war is nearing its end. An accident or a mistake may yet renew it, but to-day the signs of peace are unmistakably bright.

Canada accepts the Chancellor's bread duties with suspicious alacrity. She sees, of course, how easy it would be to pass from the proposed tariff to a preferential in favor of the colonies. The argument, or rather the insinuation, of the Canadian press is this, in effect: "For the moment the new corn laws are a necessity. But the time will come when the revenues may safely be reduced. What more natural than to effect this reduction by removing entirely the tax on the food products of the loyal colonies, while maintaining this war schedule against the rest of the world?" It is easy to see how such an argument might be employed by Imperial Federationists of Mr. Chamberlain's school, and, of course, the establishment of a preferential for colonial products would be a significant step towards an Imperial Zollverein. Australia, which has developed a sturdy national feeling, and is no friend of the preferential, may do something to balance Canadian influence. It would not be too much to say, however, that the exigencies of the exchequer have imperilled the sound tradition of English finance. Is it not always easier to impose and collect a series of extraordinary taxes than it is to return from the abnormal to a normal basis? These are considerations which those who are forecasting the remoter effects of the deplorable war in South Africa might do well to ponder.

The Pope's encyclical, read in all the Catholic churches on Sunday, may be taken as a kind of farewell address of the aged Pontiff, and is marked by that elevated tone which we have been accustomed to expect in his public utterances. Especially pertinent are his denunciations of the spirit of war and conquest so markedly revived during the past few years, even among professedly Christian nations. Pope Leo is not taken in by the specious plea that vast armaments are the surest guarantee of peace. He perceives that they are, in the first place, almost as burdensome to the common people as war itself would be, and he knows too well how the possession of a giant's strength is a standing temptation to use it. The head of the Catholic hierarchy is not to be imposed upon by the heathen maxim, "Si vis pacem para bellum." He would rather agree with the modified version of it made by Enfantin, one of the followers of St. Simon, "If you would preserve peace, then prepare for peace."

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THE SENATE PHILIPPINE BILL.

The Lodge bill for the government of the Philippines has been made the unfinished business of the Senate, and will accordingly be considered from day to day until disposed of. It is of colossal proportions, embracing one hundred printed pages. A large part of it relates to the locating of mining claims and other technical matters very difficult to unravel, and which will probably not be understood by five men in the entire Congress of the United States, even after the bill is passed. It contains provisions for issuing bonds of the Philippine Government to buy out the land claims of the religious orders, and a multitude of other things which will be looked upon by the great majority of Senators as a burden and a bore, to be disposed of as hastily as possible in order to reach the more interesting private pension bills, river and harbor jobs, and other measures affecting the American people for better or for worse. It is but a single illustration of the waste of energy in attempting to govern countries on the other side of the globe when we have not time enough to attend properly to our own affairs.

The bill embraces almost as many subjects as the President's annual message. It is too voluminous to be treated as a whole in one article. We shall, therefore, confine our present examination of it to the provisions relating to the coinage question. This part of the bill has engaged the attention of the American press more closely than any other—for the reason, probably, that it has a more direct bearing than any other on our politics and on our trade relations with the islands. It must have been made already clear to Senators that the Republican press of the country frowns upon the proposal to establish the silver standard in the Philippines, and that the Democratic newspapers have not extended to it a very cordial welcome. This cold reception of the project may not deter the Senate from passing the bill, but it will strengthen the House in its purpose to strike out that part of the Senate bill and substitute the one already agreed to by its Committee on Insular Affairs.

The Senate bill authorizes the establishment of a mint at Manila to be operated under laws enacted by the Philippine Government, which Government is authorized to coin a silver dollar of 416 grains of that metal, nine-tenths fine. All bullion brought to the mint by private persons is to be coined into such dollars, which are to be unlimited legal tender. One cent per dollar is to be charged, however, for the cost of coinage. Section 83 of the bill embraces an original conception in the matter of coinage, for which a patent ought to be issued to the Committee on the ground of novelty. It provides:

"That the dollar hereinbefore authorized may be coined at the mint of the United States at San Francisco, in California, upon the request of the Government of the Philippine Islands, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States; and the owners of silver bullion may deposit the same for coinage at such mint under regulations to be made by the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States as respects deposits, coinage, and transfer to the Philippine Islands, and a charge shall be made therefor at the rate of one cent for each dollar coined and the cost of transfer to the Philippine Islands in addition thereto: Provided, that such deposits at the San Francisco mint shall be confined to silver produced in the United States."

The concluding paragraph of this section, which restricts the coinage of dollars at San Francisco to silver produced in the United States, is manifestly a sop to the silver-mine owners and to the Senators representing their States. It is not impossible that the silverites made this provision a condition of their support of the measure. However that may be, it is a barefaced exhibition of greed, and it ought to be rejected for very shame. The silver-mine owners will get nothing out of it except the world's contempt, and the United States Government will be elevated to the dunce block in consequence of it if the bill becomes a law.

The other parts of the coinage provisions are mere details for the establishment of the single silver standard in the Philippines. The education that the American people have received during the past quarter of a century has enabled them to understand what this means. It is true that the silver standard already prevails in the Philippines, and that some difficulties must be encountered in changing it. Yet it is the part of statesmanship to face such difficulties, and to put the Philippines in harmony with India and Japan and other civilized nations as regards their medium of exchange. To link our Asiatic possessions to the dead corpse of Chinese currency, after excluding the Chinese themselves from the islands, would be a mark of incompetency almost ludicrous to contemplate.

CONGRESS AGAIN DEBATING.

An unusual interest has been manifest in the proceedings of either house of Congress for the past few days. One sure sign of this is the increased space which the newspapers have given to Washington dispatches. Congressmen sometimes complain that the press does not report their debates as it formerly did. The fault is in themselves. Let them make their debates interesting, and the newspapers, which always search for interesting reading as they do for hidden treasure, will jump at the chance of printing them. Consider the columns gladly give up to the Cuban debate in the House, and to the arguments on the Chinese Exclusion Bill in the Senate. They show how press reports increase directly as the square of public interest in the doings of Congress.

What has been the secret of this revived attention to Congressional oratory? It is not far to seek. In the first place, these animated discussions of public policy have been free from the deadening influence of a foregone decision on strict party lines. There has been an open give-and-take of argument, and votes have been changed by it. We have not seen a party leader, beaten in his logical contentions, rise and taunt the master of the better reasons with the fact that the heavier battalions were against him, and say, "Well, talk as you will, you are bound to lose when the roll-call comes." Now it is the very breath of life for public debate to have this possibility of persuasion in it. Merely to apply "a fine brute majority" is the way not simply to crush your opponents, but to destroy the interest and real significance of debating at all. When men can feel compelled to say, as the honest English Squire did to the able Parliamentary orator of the other party, "You have changed my opinion by your speech, but no man can change my vote," then we need no longer inquire why Congressional debates have decayed, or why public interest in them has declined.

It is obvious that the discussion of the Chinese Exclusion Bill actually brought about a vote in the Senate very different from what would have been cast but for the searching analysis of the measure. Undebated, it would have gone through triumphantly. But it could not stand exposure. Its improprieties and indecencies, its illegalities and absurdities, its lack of business sense and of humanity alike, were so driven in upon the general conviction that it was beaten off the field. The New England conscience rose in revolt, every Senator from that section voting against it except Mr. Lodge. He preferred to side with Tillman and the other advocates of barbarous methods in dealing with the Chinese; but that only confirms what we said, that the reason and conscience of New England—indeed, we may say of the Republican party—were against the bill as it passed the House. One could wish for no more complete demonstration of the value of free debate by legislators whose minds are open, and whose votes are at liberty to follow their judgment.

In the House the case has been different, but there, too, we have been given a vivid illustration of the cause of public interest in Congressional proceedings. It is not simply that the subject under discussion is large and important. So was the Philippine Tariff Bill, but it went through amid universal indifference. The reason was that then we had the certainty of a party majority at the end, while debate was limited, and a rigid rule shut out the possibility of so much as offering an amendment. That is the sure way to kill a debate. Of course, men in the Opposition

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will present their views for the sake of a "record," and in order to put the party in power "in a hole"; but argument for such purposes only is obviously a dead-and-alive affair, and can never have the directness, the fire, the power and point of a speech which may change votes and really affect the course of legislation. Note the great contrast offered by the progress of the Cuban Bill through the House. It was attended by the stir and interest of an uncertain result. Party lines were broken up. Amendments could be and were offered. Tactical positions were eagerly manœuvred for. Far-reaching indirect results might follow in national politics. Hence the kindling and continuous interest with which the debate was followed by press and public; hence the new appeal to the debating power of the members themselves, with the discovery, in some cases, of an unexpected talent; and hence the restoration to the House of a measure of that national attention which used to be fixed upon it as the theatre of great debate.

The example ought not to be lost on those leaders of the House who have the shaping of its methods in their hands. Let them abolish some of their hard-and-fast rules for stifling debate, or else making it perfunctory. Let them take the sense of the House freely on all great subjects, instead of so hedging it about that the conquered cause is too often the one really pleasing to the majority, if it could find free expression, as well as to Cato. Let them open the true parliamentary career for talent by showing the aspiring orator that it is within his power to produce conviction and lead to action. In a word, let them make Congressional debate what debate ought to be everywhere—a means of bringing out the better reason and the wiser policy—and we shall hear much less of the decadence of Congress, or the growing indifference of the people to what goes on in the Capitol at Washington.

THE STEAMSHIP COMBINE.

From time to time during the past four months hints have been dropped, or facts have leaked out and found their way to the press, implying that a great steamship combination was on foot, and that it would embrace a large share of the Atlantic fleets, both English and American, plying between the United States and Great Britain. It was commonly supposed that the facts were held back by the parties in interest in order to see what chance there might be of passing a ship-subsidy bill in Congress, and how far the revenues from it might be available for the joint concern. An authorized statement was made public on Saturday. It confirms the rumors that had been afloat as to the fact of the combination, and as to the number and names of the fleets combined. These are the White Star, Dominion, Leyland, Atlantic Transport, American, and Red Star lines, whose aggregate tonnage is said to be nearly 850,000 tons. The relations of the combine to the Ship-Subsidy Bill are frankly stated by Mr. B. N. Baker, the President of the Atlantic Transport Company, in an interview published in the morning papers. He said:

"that the completion of the deal had been postponed from time to time because of the desire to see what kind of a ship-subsidy bill would be passed by Congress. 'It has become evident,' continued Mr. Baker, 'that the public and the newspapers do not want a ship-subsidy bill, and we have been compelled to proceed with our plans.' "

Mr. Baker threw additional light on the subsidy question by saying, in answer to an interrogatory, that the stock of his company would be taken in at a valuation of $300 to $325 per share. This cannot be considered an extravagant valuation, as things go in this fast age. The stock of the Atlantic Transport Company sells at $240 to $250 per share, independently of any combination or governmental subsidy, and the Company is building six or eight new ships at the present time. The Company is a remarkable success. It is almost wholly American, and its prosperity in the face of the competition of older and more famous lines is a striking commentary on the statement, so often repeated, that an American merchant marine is impossible without subsidies. It is aside from the purpose to say that these ships fly the British flag, since we can change all that by a joint resolution of Congress admitting them to American registry. As Mr. Baker is now building new ships in our own yards to add to his fleet, it is plain that he can see a way to sail them under the American flag and still make a fair profit.

It is not exactly certain that this giant consolidation will cause the defeat of the Subsidy Bill, now pending in the House, but it will considerably lessen its chances of passage. The declared object of the consolidation is to prevent rate-cutting. The more immediate purpose is to bring about a stock merger, by which the shares of the united companies can be put into a pool, and be made the basis of a new issue, of much larger nominal amount, to be sold to the public whenever the public is in a mood to buy such securities. Now the voters in the Western States, particularly, are becoming very restive on the subject of these mergers. Many persons who have been counted as supporters of the Ship-Subsidy Bill will be startled when they find themselves confronted with a gigantic shipping Trust, and discover that the American Line, for whose special behoof the Subsidy Bill was drawn and passed by the Senate, is a part of the combine, if not the head of it. "It is possible, though by no means certain," says the President of this line, Mr. Clement A. Griscom, "that the International Navigation Company [the American Line], whose chartered powers are very broad, will be made the parent company." The Western Congressman who reads these words, and discovers suddenly that in his fight for reëlection this fall he must carry not only the odium of a ship-subsidy bill, but of a $200,000,000 Trust in addition, will begin to think that it is best to divest himself of such a handicap. The only way to do this is to have the pending bill reported from the Committee adversely, and voted down now. If this is not done, it will be charged and believed that the bill is merely held back till after the election, and that it is to be passed next winter for the benefit of the combine. Of course, all the subsidy that the bill provides for the American Line will, if it passes, go into the treasury of the consolidated company.

Although the new combination looks formidable on paper, it does not follow that it will be able to control the rates for transatlantic freight and passage. There are powerful and independent lines not in the combination, the Cunard, North German Lloyd, Hamburg-American, Holland-America, and the French Line, besides the so-called tramp steamers, which will always be a competing force even if all the regular lines should combine. Moreover, a large number of competitors may be put into the transatlantic service at any time by the termination of the Boer war in South Africa. So there is no immediate danger of extortionate rates for European travel or freight service by reason of the present combination.

A REFERENCE LIBRARY OF ART REPRODUCTIONS.

Public attention has been frequently called of late to the work which the public libraries may do for art education, by making choice collections of art reproductions, giving periodic exhibitions, and supplying facilities for lectures and conferences. The time is evidently come for this kind of work, and all such efforts will meet with an aroused public interest. This is shown most significantly in the great success of the various series of cheap art reproductions. Many are in the field. They constantly increase their scope, and, at a price ranging from one cent to five, these reproductions of great works of art make their way into school and home. All these series appear to succeed, and success is gained only through an enormous circulation. The service which such enterprises render, and which the art departments of the smaller libraries may aspire to, is akin to that of the circulating library. The aim is to convey information and to cultivate taste concerning all matters of art. There is another service which the greater libraries may render—namely, that of

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making complete collections of reproductions for the use of special students of art history—in effect, reference libraries of art.

It is the recent advance in the art of photography which has made it possible to study under one roof the art of the world. The isochromatic photograph is, for the trained eye, a sufficient record of any work of art. The enterprise of photographers has now gone so far that the more important pictures, statues, and drawings in public galleries have been adequately reproduced, and a good beginning has been made with the private collections. Meanwhile, the price of such reproductions has become so reasonable that the making of a student's collection becomes rather a matter of discrimination than of sheer expenditure, and the photographs are now so permanent that the risk of the deterioration, or even of the total destruction, of a collection is quite obviated. The utility of such a repository is obvious. If no study of reproductions can ever replace first-hand knowledge of the originals, it yet is an indispensable complement to such study. It has, in fact, certain distinct advantages, for in the art library the works of a master, which are scattered through a score of galleries in many lands, may be placed upon one table, and the comparison of work with work, which otherwise would usually depend upon that fleeting thing, the visual memory, may be made in all leisure, photograph being confronted with photograph. It is the perfection of photographic reproduction which has revolutionized art history, making what was previously matter of opinion matter of demonstration, and raising art criticism to the plane of the other historical sciences.

That American librarians have laboriously built up reference libraries in the historical sciences, philology, and natural science, while virtually slighting the field of art, is very natural. In the first place, there was a superstition that art history must be studied chiefly in books, or, in another view, only in galleries. The idea that photographs and similar reproductions are the indispensable apparatus of the art historian has only lately made its way. This kind of study was a very new thing, and tainted with the suspicion of amateurism. Only a very liberal librarian—one who would strain the last point for a minute palæontologist or entomologist—could be expected to appropriate good money and devote unwonted pains for the benefit of people who merely wanted to look at pictures.

This attitude of depreciation has changed as art history has come to be a recognized science. Many librarians have given their energies to this new and fruitful field of library activity. Boston, though with a sadly insufficient appropriation, still leads in the completeness of its collection for the study of the fine arts. The Avery Library at Columbia University and the Cooper Institute have notable collections for the study of architecture and the industrial arts respectively. In Brooklyn the Pratt Institute and the Brooklyn Institute have made good beginnings, and doubtless many other libraries throughout the country have done something in this direction. We believe that many of the great libraries would undertake such collections if they could be fairly informed of the probable expense of an art department—its first cost and charges for maintenance. Benefactors, too, would probably adopt the idea readily if it came to them in a practical form. As with any new project, the question of ways and means is all-important.

Here Sir Martin Conway, Slade Professor of Art in Cambridge University, England, has some valuable suggestions in his recent book, 'The Domain of Art.' He writes:

> "The great age of Italian painting from Cimabue to Tiepolo might perhaps be fairly completely represented by 20,000 photographs of pictures and drawings. . . . The cost of the photographs would not be less than £1,000. They would have to be mounted, boxed, and shelved for purposes of general reference by students, and that would cost at least £1,000 more. In practice the whole cost of such a collection would work out at nearer £3,000 than £2,000. That would enable us to produce a kind of illustrated index, chronologically classified, of all the chief paintings and drawings that have come down to us from the old Italian schools."

It is a comparatively simple calculation to deduce from this the probable cost of a complete collection for painting. Assuming that Italian painting, including drawing, comprises rather more than half of what would be necessary for an art-reference library, and remembering that photographs for northern painting are relatively more expensive, the minimum cost of a collection for painting may be reckoned at double Sir Martin Conway's figures—that is, £6,000, or $30,000; the maximum cost might fairly be put at £9,000, or $45,000. It would take several years, under ordinary conditions, to buy, mount, and properly classify the initial collection. Afterwards the cost of accessions would be comparatively small. The expense of maintenance would be at most the salary of a special curator, with an assistant. Much of the work might be distributed to the regular staff. Many of the larger libraries already have a special art-librarian, in which case the additional expense would be comparatively less.

To speak in round numbers, a gift of $100,000 would provide generously for the establishment and maintenance of a reference library of art reproductions. When these facts are known and properly presented, we believe it will not be long before the New York Public Library, the Congressional Library at Washington, and one at least of the three great Chicago libraries will be in a way to add such departments. It should not be forgotten that, while such a collection is primarily for the use of specialists, it can readily be made available also for the general purposes of art education. It would be a valuable resource as well to our artists, for by the use of such a collection they could very readily find the necessary contact with the finest traditions of the past. Under modern conditions, photographs of great works of art are to the young artist what Horace's "Exemplaria Græca" were to the young poet of Augustan times.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

WASHINGTON, April 19, 1902.

The April meetings of the National Academy of Sciences, which are held in Washington, are usually more important, scientifically, than the autumn meetings, which are held elsewhere. The relations of the Academy to the Government would naturally render them so; and other circumstances tend to the same result. At the meeting which has just adjourned, twenty-six papers were presented, of which four were biographies of deceased members. Of the remaining twenty-two, five related to Astronomy, as many in a broad sense to chemistry, three each to biology and geology, two each to psychology and logic, and one to metrics; while one was a description of Mosso's station on Monte Rosa.

Of the five papers upon astronomy, one, a review of the present state of our knowledge of the constant of aberration, by Dr. S. C. Chandler, was read by title only, and one upon the coefficients of precession and nutation, by Mr. Ira Ibsen Sterner, was an affair of computation. In a paper upon the planet Eros, Prof. E. C. Pickering expressed the belief that the photographic observations of that planet thirty years hence would yield the best value for the solar parallax; but Prof. Asaph Hall held that the best value would quite possibly be derived from a certain inequality of the moon's motion. Professor Pickering discussed in a very interesting way the irregular variations of light of the same little asteroid, Eros. The period of time during which the planet goes through all its changes of brightness seems to be constant at about two and a half hours, but the amount of the change appears to depend upon the direction from which the planet is viewed. The inference is that the planet rotates about an axis which must be invariable in direction, or nearly so. Yet the planet does not appear to be displaced in position during the period of its rotation; from which it may be inferred that it is about equally bright in all parts. Hence, its variations of brightness would be owing to the angular area exposed to the eye, as the object is viewed from different sides. Thus, the amount of variation, the mean brightness, and the law of variation, as the planet is viewed from different sides, afford means for a study of its form, and of the causes of variation, in a way hitherto unparalleled in photometry.

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Professor Pickering also gave an account of the present state of research into the distribution of stars of different magnitudes over the heavens, a work begun by the immortal William Herschel, from which —with such assistance as proper motions and possibly some minor sources of information may afford—must be deduced whatever knowledge of the form and constitution of the star cluster in which the solar system is as a grain of sand upon a seabeach, the denizens of earth may be destined ever to attain.

Professor Hall, who preserves a manifest attachment to analytical devices for getting at facts where observation is more or less in default, discussed the possibility of a comet's being disrupted by gravitation alone, and wrote down the general differential equations of the problem—equations which a skilled mathematician might study for many months without finding any really good way of handling. Professor Pickering remarked that a series of photographs had demonstrated the existence of a repulsive force between parts of a certain comet, at a certain epoch, which was many times as strong as the disrupting force of gravity.

Of the five papers I have classed as chemical, one by Professor Nichols, on the optical properties of asphalt, and one by Professor Morley, on the tension of mercury vapor below the boiling-point of water, were of technical interest. Professor Morley finds that the tension, as experimentally determined, is greatly less than that which had been deduced by extrapolation. Professor Crafts gave a brief statement of the progress he has made since November in the study of the catalysis of comparatively concentrated solutions, using as a catalyser what will be understood by all students of chemistry as $C_6H_5SO_3H$.

Professor Richards, who at present looks after the atomic weights more than others do, has determined that of the very rare potassium-metal cæsium. The number he obtains is about 132.879; with a range of from 132.873 to 132.882. Hitherto, 132.8 has been the number given. He also offered a largely speculative, yet highly useful, contribution to the question of what hypotheses may reasonably be tried in order to account for changes in atomic volume. It seems very extraordinary that, notwithstanding the stupendous mass of chemical facts that have been collected and the very considerable researches that have been made into physical chemistry, we are still almost entirely ignorant of what a chemical compound is, or how its constituents are held together. We are not even sure that they are held together by mutual attractions; for although heat is generally evolved when bodies combine, showing that mutual forces are satisfied simultaneously with the act of combination, yet in some cases, on the contrary, heat is absorbed during combinations—a fact which naturally leads us to inquire whether there may not be other agencies than mutual forces whose action indirectly results in the formation of chemical bodies; and whether, if so, it is not probable that such agencies, whatever they may be, are a factor even of those combinations in which they are aided by direct forces. When hydrogen and chlorine come together to form muriatic gas, there is no condensation—or none of which account is commonly taken—although there is enormous evolution of heat. But then, the extreme chemical activity of the resulting gas seems to prove that it is not a fully complete chemical compound. Notwithstanding the tremendous energy with which the ions have approached one another, they are still so active that the case must be very different from what it is when a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen loses one-third of its volume in combining. A body may undergo contraction without combining with a different body; as when aqueous vapor is cooled. In all such cases heat is plenteously evolved, and molecule unites with molecule. It is a question how far the heat of chemical reaction is anything more than heat of contraction. Contraction does not necessarily consist solely in the approach of atoms towards one another. If an atom is a vortex, it must be in itself elastic and capable of deformation; and it may be so even if it is not a vortex. If atoms are compressible, the mutual attraction between two atoms would naturally tend to deform them. Another question, therefore, to be considered is the relation between such deformations and their valency. It seems to be a fact that highly compressible elements have low valency, while carbon and other elements of high valency are little compressible. All these are interesting and valuable considerations to be borne in mind in the construction of new hypotheses upon which experimental investigations are to be based.

The geological papers were of remarkable interest. Two, by the new President of the Academy, Mr. Alexander Agassiz, related to the mode of formation of coral reefs and to the somewhat peculiar coral reefs of the Maldive Islands, which Mr. Agassiz has lately visited. Instead of being in the trade-winds, these islands are in the monsoons; and, instead of being exposed to the tremendous surf of the Pacific, they are in the gentler Indian Ocean. Darwin's theory of the origin of the coral reefs, which, as is generally known, was that the work of the coral animals began when the Pacific was a shallow sea, and that, as its floor has gradually sunk, the corals have built higher and higher, until they now rise in some cases from the deepest ocean, seems, at any rate, to be definitively exploded. In the first place, it does not seem to be generally true that the sea-floor is everywhere sinking where there are coral-reefs. In the next place, borings show that the coral-rock extends only to a moderate depth. In the third place, an admirable survey was made of the Maldives, about 1830 to 1836, from comparison of which with the existing islands it is found for certain that older and younger atolls exist side by side in the same sea, which is hardly compatible with Darwin's theory. There are several other arguments to the same effect, not so easily stated in a few words.

On the other hand, the differences between the Maldives and the Pacific coral islands, which are very remarkable, are easily explicable on the theory of their formation which is supported by Agassiz. The Maldive atolls are excessively composite. What may be called an atoll, and upon a small-scale map has every appearance of such a formation, may be found to be a composite of tens or of hundreds of partially independent atolls; and the lagoons will contain rich growths of corals, in striking contrast to the atolls of the Pacific. This is attributable to the wide and deep passages existing in the reefs. In the Maldives, as in the Pacific and near Yucatan, manganese nodules were found upon the floor of the ocean, and these are held to be necessarily of eruptive origin. Not limestone, but eruptive rocks form the foundation structures upon which the coral islands are built. Next above these rocks are limestones that are not coralline, but are composed of fragments of shells of globigerinæ. These deposits are raised to such a height as to be moved by the action of the sea and to be further thrown up in places to within 30 or 40 fathoms of the surface, at which depth the work of the coral animals can begin. After that, everything seems to depend upon the action of the sea, and so upon the prevailing winds. The nature of the changes which individual islands have undergone since 1830 are extremely interesting and significant. A coral reef is not necessarily circular. That type occurs but seldom. It is more apt to be shaped like a pear or a gourd. According to circumstances, in the Maldives, in course of time, a faro, or island, or several, may be formed upon the reef; quite commonly two, where the seas of the two monsoons strike tangentially. These islands put out spits in one direction and the other as the wind changes, and thus the two islands at length join together and the one island takes the form of a broken ring.

Professor Osborn summarized the evidence that North America and Eurasia were, during the Mesozoic and Cenozoic, joined in such wise as to constitute a single zoölogical realm. In regard to the latent homology of which he told us last October, he has since found that this had been long ago remarked by Owen, and named homoplasy. Professor Osborn presented part third of a monograph on the bombycine moths of America. This part relates to the Sphingicampidæ.

Professor Cattell read a paper on psychophysical fatigue, in which he showed that Mosso's method of experimenting upon lifting a dead weight from the ground, the amount of work being measured by the product of the mass into the height through which it was lifted, is open to the objection that there is much effort before the weight is stirred. By experimenting upon pulls against a spring, Professor Cattell has entirely avoided this objection; and the consequence is, that the strange anomalies of Mosso's results now completely disappear. Three papers by Mr. C. L. Peirce, on Color Sensation, on the Postulates of Geometry, and on the Classification of the Sciences, were read by title.

Mr. William Sellers read a paper on the compulsory introduction of the metric system into the United States. This referred to a bill which the doctrinaires of the metric system, with their usual utter neglect to ascertain the state of facts, have introduced into Congress requiring every bureau of the Government (including the Bureau of Weights and Measures, the Mint, the Bureau of Construction of the Navy, etc.), from and after a given date, to use no other than the units of the metrical system for any purpose whatsoever. That this would render every plan in the Navy Department worthless, that it would be impossible to repair the engines of any ship, are among the smallest inconveniences which would result from carrying out the purposes of

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this fantastic measure, which is, however, urgently pushed by Gen. Comstock. At present the American screw system is in use generally upon the Continent of Europe. There has been, of late years, some attempt to revolt against it; but if America only maintains her position, those countries must ultimately come to the inch for mechanical purposes, because it and its modes of subdivision are more convenient and advantageous for those purposes. America is now, said Mr. Sellers, fifty years in advance of the rest of the world in mechanics. Really, to discard the inch would be to surrender our preëminence, which could not, under those circumstances, continue, such advantage should we be at once putting into the hands of England.

The newly elected President of the Academy, Mr. Agassiz, gave a brilliant reception on Wednesday at the Arlington. President Roosevelt received the Academy on Wednesday morning with the utmost grace.

MADAME RÉCAMIER.—III.

PARIS, April 19, 1902.

Madame Récamier returned to Paris after the fall of Napoleon in 1814. She found there all those who had been persecuted like herself under the Empire. She was as handsome as she ever had been, and to the prestige of beauty she added the halo of triumph. Her friends, the Montmorencys, Mathieu and Adrien, the Duke de Rohan, Alexis de Noailles, were all in high honor. Adrien de Montmorency presented to her his son, who fell at once in love with her, which gave him occasion to cite a verse of La Fontaine, in the "Animaux Malades de la Peste"—

"Ils n'en mouraient pas tous, mais tous étaient frappés."

During these first hours of triumph Madame Récamier had the pleasure of extending her kindness to Queen Hortense, who was at Saint-Leu, as well as to Queen Caroline of Naples. She drew more closely to the royalist cause Benjamin Constant, who became very seriously enamoured of her. Queen Caroline begged Madame Récamier to find in Paris some one who could defend her interests and those of Murat at the Congress of Vienna. Madame Récamier cast her eyes on Benjamin Constant; he refused to undertake the task, which he thought unworthy of him, but this circumstance brought him in daily contact with Madame Récamier, and what had been at first only a natural attraction grew into a most violent passion.

Benjamin Constant was a man of extraordinary talent and of an unbridled disposition. He never seems to have been able to understand that Madame Récamier did not return his love, and he was exasperated at her resistance to a passion which in the end amounted almost to madness. It was strong enough to influence his politics; he was not a royalist at heart, but made himself a royalist. When Bonaparte lands in France, after having left the island of Elba, Benjamin Constant writes in his diary: "I throw myself *à corps perdu* on the side of the Bourbons. It is Madame Récamier who drives me to this." Napoleon approaches, and, on the 19th of March, Benjamin Constance, who remains in Paris (Madame Récamier had left for Switzerland, taking with her twenty thousand francs which Benjamin Constant had lent her), writes in the *Journal des Débats* an article which ends with this celebrated phrase: "I will not, a miserable deserter, drag myself from one party to the other, cover infamy with sophism, and 'balbutier des mots profanés pour racheter une vie honteuse' [I cite the text in its eloquence]."

Constant started for Nantes, but, learning on the way that the town was in the hands of the Bonapartists, he returned to Paris, thinking that he was to be arrested. He received, to his astonishment, the visit of a negotiator who invited him, in the name of the Emperor, to go to the Tuileries. After some hesitation, and on hearing that Lafayette and all the Constitutional party were united in a policy of conciliation with Napoleon, he went to the Tuileries, and, after a long conversation with the Emperor, accepted the post of Councillor of State. In the first letter which he wrote to Madame Récamier after this reconciliation with the Empire, he said merely: "The life of a courtier or a statesman be d—d! I think that I shall resign to-morrow, and I am sure I would do so if I only thought that you would thank me for it." He added: "I have had the most curious conversations. . . . They will be good to hear, if you are curious." His versatility was not rewarded; the dream of a liberal Empire soon vanished. After Waterloo, Constant found a change in Madame Récamier's attitude towards him. "I feel there," he writes in his *Journal intime*, "a barrier which paralyzes me." There is some truth in these remarks of M. Turquan: "Benjamin Constant's love for Madame Récamier seems to have dried up his brain. The unfortunate man produces nothing more; he seems to have been arrested in full development." Michelet did not hesitate to attribute Constant's failure to his unhappy love for Madame Récamier.

Madame Récamier saw the Duke of Wellington in Paris, in 1814. M. Turquan reproaches her for doing, in these circumstances, what Madame de Staël, the Duchess d'Abrantès, all the ladies of the Faubourg St. Germain did; and at any rate, she received very coldly the homage of the Duke. In 1815, after Waterloo, Wellington paid her a visit, and among his first words to her, he said, alluding to Napoleon: "Je l'ai bien battu." Madame Récamier was offended by these words, and from that day she did not see the Duke of Wellington again.

Madame de Staël fell ill, and Madame Récamier, who visited her constantly, made in her house the acquaintance of Chateaubriand, who was much struck by her beauty; but their intimate relations began only some time after the death of Madame de Staël. In 1818, Madame Récamier went to Aix-la-Chapelle, during the sitting of the Congress, meeting there, as I have said, the Prince Augustus of Prussia; on her return to Paris she paid more attention to Chateaubriand than she had done at first. She knew that he had made a deep impression on a number of great ladies, Madame de Beaumont, Madame de Castine, the Duchess de Mouchy, the Duchess de Duras. It seemed natural for her to count the author of the 'Genius of Christianity' among her ordinary courtiers. Chateaubriand soon held the first place among them; but she kept them all, even those who at first suffered the pangs of jealousy. She was a great master in the art of mingling natural coquetry with real friendship.

M. Récamier, who, after his great failure in the time of the Empire, had attempted to rebuild his fortune, failed again under the Restoration. His wife had to shut up her house, to sell a hôtel which she had bought, and she took rooms in a sort of convent for ladies, called L'Abbaye-aux-Bois. She was, of course, to live there as she liked, to receive her friends, and to keep a few servants. Chateaubriand has described her apartment:

"A dark passage separated two small suites. The bedroom was adorned with a library, a harp, a piano, a portrait of Madame de Staël, and a moonlight view of Coppet. In the windows were flower-pots. When, all panting after the ascent of three flights of stairs, I entered this cell at the approach of evening, I felt enchanted. The windows afforded a view on the garden of the abbey, on the lawn where nuns walked around and where their pupils were running. The top of an acacia reached to the height of the eye. Pointed spires cut the sky, and on the horizon the hills of Sèvres were seen. The setting sun covered everything with gold and entered by the open windows."

It was in this retreat that Madame Récamier received her friends, who were faithful to her to the end. Chateaubriand had his chair near the chimney, where he invariably sat every day for some hours. Every means were tried to amuse him. One day, Rachel, who was then at the beginning of her career, came and recited some parts of "Polyeucte" and of "Esther." She was just reciting the famous verses which Corneille places in the mouth of Pauline when she feels the operation of grace and becomes a Christian—

"Mon jeune époux mourant m'a laissé ses lumières,
Son sang, dont ses bourreaux viennent de me couvrir.
M'a dessillé les yeux et me les vient d'ouvrir;
Je vois, je sais, je crois!"—

when the door opened and an archbishop was introduced. Madamoiselle Rachel was a Jewess, and when she was presented to the archbishop she did not dare to repeat again the scene from "Polyeucte," but recited the verses from "Esther":

"Est-ce toi, chère Elise."

In 1820 there came a new visitor to the Abbaye-aux-Bois, Ampère, the son of the great Ampère who may be called the father of modern electrical science. Young Ampère naturally fell in love with Madame Récamier, and became her devoted friend. He was a charming man and became a member of the French Academy.

The assassination of the Duke de Berry (February 13, 1820) was followed by many changes in the interior policy of the Restoration. Decazes left the Home Office; it was thought for a moment that Chateaubriand would enter the Cabinet. Louis XVIII., who disliked him, contented himself with sending him as Ambassador to Berlin; he was sent later to London and to the Congress of Verona. When M. de Villèle became Prime Minister, he gave the Foreign Affairs Department to Chateaubriand. In 1823 Madame Récamier made a journey to Rome with her young niece (who became Madame Lenormant), Ampère, and Ballanche. She received almost daily letters from Chateaubriand and from Mathieu de Montmorency. At Rome she was received by the French Ambassador, the Duke de Laval. She stayed a long time in Rome,

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where Ampère made the first studies which he afterwards completed in a charming book, 'Promenades dans Rome.'

M. Turquan's volume ends with a detailed account of the last years of Madame Récamier. She became a widow some time before the Revolution of 1830. This revolution caused great commotion among her friends. Chateaubriand, though he had many reasons for discontent with the Government of the Bourbons, remained the chivalrous advocate of their cause. He resigned his seat in the House of Peers; the Abbaye-aux-Bois became his refuge. It was there that he read to a select circle the eloquent pages of his 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe.' Madame Récamier became to him a sort of Antigone. By degrees she grew almost blind. The celebrated beauty who had carried everything before her in her early days, led at the close the most melancholy life. She died on May 11, 1849, after a new Revolution. She was a victim of the cholera, which was then raging in Paris. It is said that on her deathbed her features, softened and glorified, recovered all the beauty of former days.

Correspondence.

NON TROVATO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the literary notes of your number of March 20, I have been surprised to see the following sentence: "The Oxford Dictionary has been followed in the remarkable omission of 'anti-slavery,' certainly one of the best-worked of the *anti* epithets of the nineteenth century."

If such an omission had been made from the Dictionary it would certainly have been remarkable; so remarkable that one wonders the writer could let the statement go without looking to see if it could possibly be true. The word would have been duly found on page 364, column 1, with the other well-worked *anti* epithets of the nineteenth century, *Anti-combination* (laws), *Anti-corn-law* (League) *Anti-rent* (agitators), *Anti-state-church* (Association), and *Anti-vaccination*, duly distinguished by black type from the general crowd of *anti* combinations. On account of the interest of *Anti-slavery*, special trouble was taken by me to trace the epithet to its source, and I succeeded in getting a quotation from the manuscript minute-book of the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society of the 9th of April, 1823, which is probably the earliest written use of the word on this side the Atlantic. In addition to this, the Dictionary quotes of the same year the New York *Observer* of 17th of May, the *Anti-Slavery Reporter* of 1825, and a speech of Wendell Phillips of 1863; which, I think, sufficiently epitomize the history of the epithet.

In Great Britain, now, critics do not venture to write of the Dictionary's "remarkable omissions" when they overlook a word in it (which, on account of the vastness of the field, and the necessity for economizing space, is always possible); they modestly say they "have not found" it.

James A. H. Murray.

Oxford, April 11, 1902.

[Our dereliction arose from too good a memory and too imperfect examination, original and recent. On the first appearance (in the eighties!) of the portion of the Dictionary containing the word *anti-slavery*, we made at least a mental note of the absence of this word *from its place in the main alphabetical sequence*. At that time undoubtedly we lacked the caution the exercise of which is emphasized anew by Dr. Murray. In apologizing for this lese-Dictionary, we may properly allege the mitigating circumstance that it is not obvious at first glance on what principle like compounds are allotted now to the main alphabet, now to a subordinate place. The need of definition is not the controlling factor, as is plain, say, from *antisocial* being at the front while *anti-slavery* is perdu.—Ed. Nation.]

WHO WAS ISAAC WEAVER?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The pamphlet 'Experience the Test of Government . . . Philadelphia, printed by William Duane, 1807,' and included in Duane's "Select Pamphlets," 1814, has by some cataloguers been regarded as anonymous. A copy which has just come into my hands has, written on the back of the title-page, evidently in a contemporary hand, "Written by Isaac Weaver."

At my request the Library of Congress has made research into the matter, but finds no mention of Isaac Weaver, much less any support of this ascription. It is very desirable that, if possible, the authorship of this important tract be determined, and I hope some Pennsylvania antiquarian or bibliographer may be able to throw light on the question—at least, to discover who Isaac Weaver was. W. I. Fletcher.

Amherst College Library, April 19, 1902.

THE STUDENT GOWN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can some bright student of sociology explain the sudden fondness of American students for what is euphemistically termed "academic costume"? One can understand the argument that some sort of uniform is desirable in order to add to the solemnity and dignity of Commencement day. But how any young fellow with a trace of humor in his composition can, of his own choice, appear at other times in a flowing black gown and a mortar-board, is not so evident. Many college students are of very humble social position, and are compelled to do the lowest sort of manual labor in order to meet their expenses. Yet in a number of Eastern colleges the seniors array themselves for the spring term in all the majesty that this garb can give. In the course of a few weeks these seniors will go, one to his farm, one to his merchandise, and sink into the mediocrity that is the lot of the majority; but, for one glorious spring term, they have been marked off from the vulgar herd. Wherever they have gone they have been gazed upon with awe as living college seniors. Does this represent the real state of mind of the gownsmen, or must we look farther?

At Oxford and Cambridge the students have, of course, retained the distinctive dress worn in the Middle Ages, when every one was attired according to his station. American colleges were at first modelled somewhat on the English pattern, but in the course of the last two decades they have gone as far from their English models as possible. Is the gown intended to remind us of historic relations that would otherwise rapidly be forgotten? Our German cousins are rather absurdly fond of uniforms; but German students, though many of them wear modest flat colored caps, seldom venture to don a peculiar university garb except for processions.

What, then, is the genesis of this fashion? Has it come to stay, or is it a passing fad? Some one who knows will, perhaps, be good enough to tell. Oxford.

April 14, 1902.

"ACADEMIC STUDIES AND DEGREES."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the thoughtful and temperate article on "Academic Studies and Degrees," which appeared in the *Nation* of April 10, there are certain assumptions which may well be questioned. One of these assumptions is, that the student of science is a specialist, while the student of the classics is not. Another is, that scientific studies are directly utilitarian to the student, while classical studies are not. A third assumption, which (to be sure) may be regarded as a direct consequence of those just given rather than a new proposition, is that classical studies give "the flexibility of mind which we call culture," while scientific studies do not. The writer appears, moreover, to exclude modern languages from the category of culture-giving studies.

"The studies that lead to knowledge of man, with the flexibility of mind which we call culture," is a passage to be pondered over when it is applied to the old-fashioned classical college curriculum. Is it true that Latin, and Greek, and mathematics, the main constituents of the traditional A.B. course, gave a peculiarly wide or true knowledge of man? Is it true that from their very nature or from the way in which they were taught, they gave especial flexibility of mind, a quality of culture, not to be attained by means of other studies? Occupied with such reflections, I yesterday chanced to enter the study of an acquaintance whose name would be recognized by many readers of the *Nation* as that of a man of culture. Finding myself alone there I did, what I usually do under such circumstances—that is, I looked somewhat curiously at the pictures on the walls. I found there, among others of less notable persons, portraits of Darwin, Carlyle, Emerson, Lincoln, Newman, and, I think, Chaucer. Now, it seemed to me that there was an indication, almost a proof, of liberal culture, of varied interests and sympathies, of the power to meet a great variety of educated men on common grounds, in the selection of such a list of portraits. Yet how very modern the list was, as a whole. The owner was, no doubt, more or less proficient in Greek and Latin twenty or more years ago; but I feel sure that most of the ideas, not purely literary, with which he occupies himself are ideas for which he need not go to the classics—ideas with which he would not find the classics especially helpful. And is this not true of most liberally educated men at the present time? Has not

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this age, like every other age of real intellectual activity, brought forth its own intellectual products, and is not cultivation nowadays mainly concerned with these products?

And even if, in the group of portraits which I have described, one were to replace Carlyle by Pasteur, and Chaucer by Helmholtz or Clerk Maxwell, could these changes fairly be taken as indicating commonplace and utilitarian interests? Is not the true criterion of culture the ability to hold mutually agreeable and profitable mental intercourse with many sorts and conditions of men? Is it not to be sought in familiar acquaintance with many subjects of general interest, rather than in the profound knowledge of any one thing, even if that one thing be Greek? Is it not true that a student who should, at the present time, confine himself in college to such studies as his grandfather took while there, would appear uncultivated in general intellectual intercourse with most educated men of to-day? The writer of the article under discussion admits that such a student would find himself one of a very small company.

Is the writer sure that the feeling of having preserved the old tradition of "aristocratic" or "clerkly" learning, at the sacrifice of intellectual companionship with the great mass of college-trained men, would make this student anything better than a prig? Will not this writer admit that a great deal of the old spirit of "disinterested and 'clerkly' study" has gone over from the classics to physics and chemistry and biology? He has spoken of the Johns Hopkins. Did he know Rowland? Was any classicist ever more magnificently disregardful of mere utilities than he? Let us remember that the discovery of the Roentgen rays was led up to and made possible by decades of patient study in a field of physics that seemed absolutely barren of all promise of utility.

I agree, however, with what I understand to be the opinion of the writer, that some studies of a too technical character are sometimes thrown open to candidates for the A.B. degree. The danger that this will happen is perhaps especially great where a college and a technical school exist side by side. The curriculum of a scientific school which undertakes to give a professional education is almost always sadly overcrowded; things for which some use cannot be plainly foreseen must be left out of it. The result is an atmosphere of hurry and strain, a spirit of desperate economy like that which forces an Arctic explorer to leave his watch behind in making his race for life. This spirit is the very opposite of "liberal," and no amount of work done under such conditions can give a liberal education.

Very truly yours, EDWIN H. HALL.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 14, 1902.

[We had no intention of excluding the modern languages, or indeed any of the historical sciences, from the category of "humanistic" studies; still less of asserting the inferiority *per se* of scientific studies. What we wished to emphasize is the cleft between these two kinds of training. Let Mr. Hall take extreme instances—a young man trained in classical and modern literatures, history, and philosophy; and another student trained exclusively in mathematics, biology, chemistry, physics, and other natural sciences—and he cannot doubt that these two different curricula would bring about two radically diverse mental attitudes. Without predicating superiority of one or the other education, it is clear that they are different. That this difference should be recognized in our academic degrees—a contention which we cannot see that Mr. Hall's interesting *questionnaire* really touches—was the plea of the article in question.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

Our readers have had a foretaste of Prof. G. Frederick Wright's forthcoming book on 'Asiatic Russia,' illustrated with photographs and maps, which McClure, Phillips & Co. are to publish in two volumes.

William S. Lord, Evanston, Ill., has in press 'Love-Story Masterpieces,' compiled by Ralph A. Lyon; 'John McGovern's Poems,' and 'Line o' Type Lyrics,' by Bert Leston Taylor.

'Next to the Ground,' by Martha McCulloch-Williams (McClure, Phillips & Co.), is an out-of-door book of an unusual kind, in that it is a study not only of wild animals and plants, but of the biology of farm processes, crops, and domestic animals. The author shows minuteness and fidelity of observation, and considerable scientific knowledge in accounting for the facts that she notes; she has, moreover, freshness and aptness of diction, and a freedom from sentimentality that makes her book seem genuine and wholesome as befits its subject. The scene of her observations is a Tennessee plantation. To anybody familiar with Southern farms her description of August, "the ragged month," and her chapters on breaking up old grass-land and burning for tobacco seed-beds, will bring up lively remembrance of characteristic landscapes and scenes of labor. The chapters on quail-shooting, fox-hunting, and 'possum-hunting are less convincing; one cannot follow with the thrill of the chase. The study of the hog free to range in ample feeding-grounds will surprise readers who know the animal only in the confinement of the sty. The book gets some human interest from the incidental introduction of the planter and his family, but this part of the work is not uniformly skilful. Wherever the author appears to have seen for herself, her record is to be relied on. She evidently uses, however, considerable material not obtained from her own experience, and here, unfortunately, she has made mistakes that mar a highly commendable book.

Mr. Ernest Christopher Meyer, of Madison, Wis., has prepared and publishes an essay entitled 'Nominating Systems; Direct Primaries versus Conventions in the United States.' He regards the "primary" as the "citizen's citadel of right," and when pure, as "the fount from which the great blessings of democratic government flow." Of course this view implies the permanency of the party system. Independent movements will be hindered by making party machinery a part of the governmental organization, which properly knows only citizens, and favors no one because he calls himself a Republican or a Democrat. Whatever reform is to come must be reform "within the party." Nor is it to be assumed that the caucus will, on the whole, be more difficult to manage than the convention. As Mr. Bryce observes, no meeting can be held without a prearranged plan; and while the regulation of caucuses by law may make party organization more perfect, it does not follow that government will be thereby improved. Mr. Meyer, however, is firmly convinced that there is a fund of political virtue among the people which can be utilized by legalizing the caucus, and he deserves credit for the pains he has taken to collect whatever information on the subject is to be found. His book is certainly of value, but it will not supersede Mr. F. W. Dallinger's excellent work, 'Nomination to Elective Office.'

The sixth—a skip from the fourth—volume of the 'System of Physiologic Therapeutics' (Blakiston), under Dr. Cohen's editorship, is by Dr. N. S. Davis, jr., upon 'Dietotherapy.' The alternative title of "Food in Health and Disease" is more acceptable. The work is a convenient arrangement of principles and details in the matter of food and feeding, and very acceptable features are the reproduction of numerous dietaries in actual use about the world taken from Bulletins of the Department of Agriculture, and a table of the composition and fuel value of flesh foods by Mitchell. Dr. Davis accepts his father's well-known views, that alcohol is as unnecessary as a medicine as it is undesirable as a beverage, although he admits that in small doses it may be beneficial. These, however, are to be strictly guarded by prescription. As a whole, the book is a good working exposition of what may be accomplished by foods. When the author says (p. 27), "the Pasteur or Chamberlain filter is the best," and "it is made of porous earthenware," it is apparent that he has the Pasteur-Chamberland in mind, and uses "earthenware" in a very broad sense to include biscuit porcelain. More definiteness would be better. As in the other volumes of this series, the index is copious.

An edition of Gauss's classical work on 'Curved Surfaces' has, during the last generation, appeared about once every three or four years, so that it would seem to vie in popularity with 'Gulliver's Travels' and far outdo Munchausen. The last and best edition, at any rate the easiest for Americans to read, is a splendid publication by the Princeton University Library. It is in English. A mathematician who does not possess enough Latin to read a book on mathematics is cut off entirely from all the more important parts of the older literature, except what is written in French. Not only the language, but Gauss's algebraical notations, are modernized in the new publication, even in points where his preferences were emphatic. We should prefer to read the paper in his collected works. However, no doubt it is more easily read here, and all the slips are corrected. Besides the work itself, there is a translation of an earlier work by Gauss on the same subject, which never was printed until seventy-five years after it was written, in 1900. There are also an abstract by Gauss of his own memoir, and serviceable notes. A valuable bibliography is added, in looking over

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which we remark that this differential geometry has been chiefly cultivated, since Gauss, by Italian and French mathematicians. But the list omits some of the topics which have most engaged attention. The work has been done by James Caddall Morehead and Adam Miller Hiltebeitel.

In "The Problem of the Universe," Professor Newcomb, writing in the *International Monthly*, goes over the whole ground of stellar distribution and the doctrine of cosmic evolution, from Wright and Kant to Darwin and Kapteyn, making it quite clear that the infinities still have it, in so far as comprehension by finite intelligence is concerned; and further, that, in spite of the rather rapid increase of human knowledge of things stellar, our ignorance must probably remain for ever colossal. The universe is a large subject for magazine treatment, but abridgment is requisite, as nowadays readers of an article expanded beyond twenty pages, on any topic save money, war, or politics, are few and far between.

Professor Bigelow, an able and industrious meteorologist of the United States Weather Bureau, contributes to the current *Popular Science Monthly* an article, on the formation and motions of clouds, which goes to show that a critical knowledge of the scientific reasons underlying natural processes and phenomena need not always blind the eye to appreciation of the beautiful. He likens the present period of meteorological endeavor to the Tycho and Kepler stage of astronomy, when observations were in process of accumulation for the use of the coming Newton. But the Newtonian age in meteorology has scarcely advanced to break of dawn as yet. Professor Bigelow is quite right in saying that the storm forecaster ought to have access, not only to the ground strata of the atmosphere, but also to those at higher levels. Mr. Lawrence Rotch of Blue Hill has demonstrated in practical form how this can be done at small expense by means of kite ascensions, and in time we shall have three simultaneous daily maps of the weather—the two aerial ones for elevations of 3,500 and 10,000 feet.

A discovery of extraordinary interest is revealed in the (Boston) *Mayflower Descendant*. Mr. George Ernest Bowman there establishes the fact, hitherto unsuspected, of the existence of a marked "gravestone of a *Mayflower* passenger, erected at the time of his death and inscribed with his name and age." The person in question was Capt. Richard More, Senior, who came over as a boy in Elder Brewster's family, finally settled in Salem, Mass., and there died, being interred in the old Charter Street Cemetery. Mr. Bowman presents sundry documents (one from the Maryland archives at Annapolis), confirming his identity, and pictures photographically his well-preserved and handsomely lettered headstone and those of his wives. The year of his death is not inscribed, and is conjectural; but Mr. Bowman things Capt. More probably outlived John Cooke, who has been reputed the latest survivor among the male passengers. Mr. Bowman's researches were greatly aided by the complete index to every name in the MS. volumes of the Plymouth County wills and inventories, the Plymouth Colony deeds, and Plymouth County wills and deeds, which he is making for the Massachusetts Society of *Mayflower* Descendants.

The *Consular Reports* for April contains a review of our foreign commerce in 1901, showing that "while the aggregate of our exports of manufactured goods has shrunk, the variety of our sales in Europe is being extended, and the territory upon which they are encroaching is being steadily enlarged." From an encouraging account of the economic conditions of Mexico it appears that there are about 10,000 Americans in the Republic, mostly employed upon the railroads, and that American capital is becoming more deeply interested. Still, our Consul-General warns the "hundreds" of college graduates who write to him for information, that "Mexico is a bad place for a young, inexperienced man without ample funds." Railroad construction is rapidly improving the means of transportation, and "there is a healthy growth of manufacturing enterprise," there being 618 manufactories in the City of Mexico alone. The reports from France include the new Ship-Subsidy Act, passed by the Chamber of Deputies, and some interesting facts in regard to the mushroom culture in the quarries near Paris. "From 2½ to 3 tons of these cave-grown mushrooms are sent to market every day, and the total value of the trade is about $3,000,000 a year." Our Consul-General at Berlin gives some indications that the lowest point of business depression in Germany has been passed; but how dangerously near a general collapse has been is evidenced by the statement that "the loss sustained through the depreciation of bank shares alone during the past year was estimated on October 1, 1901, at 2,000,000,000 marks ($476,000,000)."

The *National Geographic Magazine* for April opens with an illustrated sketch by Dr. C. Rabot of recent French explorations in Africa, beginning with the Marchand expedition of 1897-98. Other articles relate to the proposed surveys in Alaska for the present year, of which the most important is the study of the Yukon section for the investigation of its coal veins, as the accessible timber is being exhausted; and to ocean currents, with special reference to the influence of the winds on the surface water.

"Toscanelli and Christopher Columbus," with which the *Annales de Géographie* for March opens, is a review of the arguments brought forward at the Congress of Americanists held in Paris in 1900, and since published in a voluminous book, to show that the letter of the Florentine astronomer which led to the voyage of Columbus was a forgery. M. Gallois's conclusion is that there is "nothing in the letter itself, nor in the circumstances under which it was written, which can cast doubt on its authenticity, nothing which permits us to refuse to Toscanelli the honor of having inspired the discovery of the New World." We remark, also, articles upon the structure of the Scandinavian Peninsula, and the distribution of frost in France—the fewest days (less than ten) on which frost occurs being at the opposite extremes of the country, the Riviera and the coast of Brittany. In an account of Italian East Africa the statement is made that the central region is the only part available for colonization. "The European can live there without danger from disease. the climate is healthy and agreeable, the colonist can cultivate the land himself, and cattle-raising is easy." There is an interesting description of the development of Kiao-Chau by the Germans, and some facts relating to the Russian emigration to Siberia, about 200,000 in 1900, in which are foreshadowed the extinction of the native races. The chief men of the Kirghiz, Yakuts, and Buryats, who have reached a certain stage of civilization, openly declare that the Russian colonization will bring ruin to their people.

The timely and unexcelled *Annuaire* of the Bureau des Longitudes for 1902 contains, in its appended scientific papers, one by M. Poincaré of the University on wireless telegraphy. He gives an historical résumé of underlying principles, going back to Hertz and Faraday, a brief description of the simpler forms of successful types of apparatus, a lucid presentation of the theory of wireless telegraphy, including that of the coherer, the advantages and disadvantages of wireless telegraphy, and the recent improvements of Marconi and Slaby. Marconi's transmitter and receiver are clearly figured, and the entire paper is perhaps the best brief exposition of the new method of communication yet published. M. Cornu follows with a technical article at some length on polyphase currents, and Admiral Guyou on the application of the decimal division of the circle to practical navigation. He makes out a clear case of rather obvious advantage, not only for nautical instruments, but for the more facile use of navigation tables. M. Janssen concludes with a brief note on the foundation and work of the observatory on the summit of Mont Blanc. Of the foreign members of the Bureau des Longitudes, four belong to the western hemisphere—Professor Davidson of San Francisco, Professor Newcomb of Washington, and two officers of the Brazilian navy. The *Annuaire* has at length adopted the very convenient and sensible subdivision of the day, long ago proposed, into hours numbered consecutively from one to twenty-four, doing away with the usual A. M. and P. M.

The principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number three, is a review by Prof. W. Sievers of the published documents relating to the Franco-Brazilian boundary dispute. These are contained in fourteen volumes, of which ten are contributed by Brazil and three by France, and in five atlases of 250 maps, besides those in the text. He regards the Brazilian presentment as far superior to that of France, which has "little substance, consists largely of hypothesis, is not convincing, and is often very superficial." The volume containing the arbitrators' summing up of the evidence, the work mainly of an unnamed Swiss engineer, he characterizes as "a scientific work of the first order," which has enriched our general cartographical knowledge.

Mr. William I. Fletcher, librarian of Amherst College; Mr. Arthur E. Bostwick, Superintendent of Circulation, New York Public Library; and Mr. Ernst Lemcke of Lemcke & Buechner, New York city, a committee of the American Library Association, unite in a circular appeal to publishers of periodicals respecting indexes. The rules they lay down, and concerning which they desire to hear from anybody interested, are five in number. The first is that title-pages and tables of contents should always

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accompany the number completing a volume; and another, that they should be printed separate from other printed matter, either advertising or reading. A third recommendation is more difficult, viz., abandonment of the "common practice of printing some first or last leaves of reading-matter on the same section with some pages of advertising."

The Queen Dowager of Italy has purchased the books and manuscripts of the famous poet and critic Carducci, leaving to the great scholar the undisturbed use of the library for his lifetime. The Paris *Temps*, from which we have the note, reminds its readers that in similar fashion Catharine the Great of Russia prevented the dispersion of Diderot's library.

The Sultan of Turkey has just shown his hostility to everything that tends to the enlightenment of his subjects in a way which brings him into sharp contrast with the rulers of China. For some time both governments have sent young men to foreign lands to be educated in the new methods that they may teach their own countrymen. There are 274 Chinese students in Japan alone, of whom 163, representing 12 provinces and Mantchuria, are maintained at the Government expense, and a month or two ago the Viceroy of Pechili sent 56 more to the military school of Tokio for a three years' course. Seventy Ottoman youths are being educated in Paris and Geneva, receiving annual Government pensions of from $250 to $1,500. A recent decree of the Sultan has deprived them all of these pensions, on the alleged ground that they took part in the Young Turkey Congress held in Paris a few weeks ago. This charge the students deny through the London *Times*—a denial the truth of which the Turkish Ambassador at Paris does not hesitate to confirm. He declared that he considered the decision of the Sultan to be "an act of extreme injustice, for not merely had he never denounced the Paris students as taking part in any propaganda, but he had himself testified to their exclusive devotion to their studies, their conduct having always been irreproachable and commanding the esteem of their professors and of all interested in them." The Sultan, not without reason, regards an educated Turk as his deadliest foe.

The fifty-first meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held at Pittsburgh, Pa., June 28 to July 3, 1902. Mr. Stewart Culin of the University of Pennsylvania will preside over the section of anthropology. Students are cordially invited to attend and contribute papers upon subjects connected with their fields of research. Several members of the section have informally expressed the desire to devote at least one day to papers and discussions on anthropological museums, their cases, methods of installation, and technique; also that papers should be offered on the more important special collections in museums both in this country and abroad. Intention to be present should be made known to Harlan I. Smith, Secretary Section H, American Museum of Natural History, New York.

—Among the interesting events of the recent Johns Hopkins celebration was a banquet to the veteran philologian, Professor Gildersleeve, the chief feature of which was the presentation of a volume of philological studies in commemoration of his seventieth birthday (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press). The contributors were, of course, his former pupils. The studies, occupying more than five hundred pages, give a fair index of the range of philological interest stimulated by Professor Gildersleeve's labors. The place of distinction at the head of the volume is given to Professor Briggs of the Union Theological Seminary, who applies to the study of the Apostolic Commission the light thrown upon early Christianity by recent critical investigation of the Gospels and the book of Acts. The current tendency to depreciate the work of Matthew Arnold appears to some extent in a paper by Dr. Mustard of Haverford College, on Homeric Echoes in "Balder Dead." The realm of English literature is touched at another point in a study of the Technic of Shakspere's Sonnets, by Prof. Thomas R. Price of Columbia University. The thought worked out is that the biographical theory, with all its dark mysteries, has broken down of its own weight, and that we are to find in the sonnets rather a record of the poet's early training in the realm of the imagination for the dramas that were to come, the characters employed being "so placed in a series of imaginary situations as to exhibit, in the widest possible range of emotion, the full play of the human soul." Of the papers dealing with topics from classical antiquity, a considerable number display that broader interest which is the cherished ideal of Professor Gildersleeve himself, while others lie towards that extreme of minute statistical investigation at which he has hurled so many a dart from his redoubt in the "Brief Mention" department of the *American Journal of Philology*. A few of the papers are historical rather than linguistic or literary in their bearing, such as Dr. Christopher Johnston's study of the Fall of the Assyrian Empire, and that of Dr. C. A. Savage on the Athenian in his Relations to the State. On the whole, the volume is a tribute in which Professor Gildersleeve may well take a legitimate pride; and the wide geographical distribution of the scholars from whom the individual papers come, is another reminder of the part which Johns Hopkins University is playing in American collegiate and university education.

—Lord Ronald Sutherland Gower, whose interest in art and antiquities has already been shown by numerous writings, now publishes two very handsome volumes on 'The Tower of London' (Macmillan). We refer first to the guise of the work, because even in this day of good printing and profuse illustrations it is sure to catch the attention. The photogravures are excellent, and out of a wealth of material the choice of subjects has been well made. The only possible cavil to be raised on this score is that the plates, by reason of their great number, render the book a little difficult to read. In dodging about among the illustrations, it is sometimes hard to find the text. We must be careful, however, to state that the descriptive part is not mere letterpress. In his general manner of treatment, Lord Gower has carefully avoided the strain of Mr. Harrison Ainsworth, on the ground, as he expressly states, that "a book which professes to be a history must not be a hotch-potch of truth and fiction." In his effort to secure accuracy he has, if anything, been too punctilious. While no one would suggest the introduction of legends in such a book, save as legends, there is the other danger of becoming too bald. The author is clearly an antiquarian rather than an historian or a picturesque essayist; but when once the reader has grasped this fact, he will find cause for satisfaction in many features of the narrative. If the style is never very animated, it is categorical and direct. Many curious facts about many different persons are brought together in a comparatively brief space, not without some misprints and errors of detail (for of these we have observed several), but in such wise as to have a value which is quite independent of the illustrations. The longest chapter by a good deal, and the most valuable, is the first. In it are described the various buildings which constitute the Tower group—the White Tower, the Lion Tower, the Middle Tower, the Byward Tower, etc.—and thus, step by step, the evolution of the whole pile is traced. As it is a fairly intricate piece of topography, this account should be of considerable assistance to those who may wish to know about the most remarkable building of its kind in Europe. The historical part of the text is mainly occupied with noticing the political offenders who have been imprisoned from generation to generation within the Tower. The first volume covers the Norman, Plantagenet, and Stuart periods; the second is devoted to the Stuarts and the Hanoverians.

—'Peter III., Emperor of Russia,' by R. Nisbet Bain (Dutton), is "the story of a crisis and a crime." While in form a biography, it may more properly be called an account of certain exciting events which occurred at the Russian court during the first six months of 1762. The Emperor himself is a most unpromising subject for the historian. The admirers of Catharine II. may have gone too far in accusing him of imbecility and depravity, but if not imbecile he was unbalanced, and if not depraved he was immoral. Mr. Bain, who thinks that he should not "be stigmatized as a mere idiot," calls him notoriously unfit to rule an empire. He was, in truth, a neurotic wreck, by the sight of whose misfortunes sympathy must be awakened rather than contempt or reprobation. Mingled with much that is painful and tragic in his career, there is a touch of the ridiculous. His admiration for Frederick of Prussia went so far that he insisted on compelling regiments which had just succeeded in driving Frederick from the field to adopt Prussian drill, and at St. Petersburg he sought feebly to reproduce the life of Berlin and Potsdam. Ridiculous as all this may seem, it constitutes a political fact of grave importance. What would have been the fate of Germany had Frederick been beaten and Prussia crushed in the course of the Seven Years' War? And the contingency was not so remote when Paul III. abandoned the policy of his predecessor, and, in the midst of a desperate conflict, exchanged the Austrian for the Prussian alliance. Here we reach the crisis to which the second title of Mr. Bain's volume refers. "The reign of Peter III. coincides with perhaps the most acute diplomatic crisis, not merely in the history

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of Russia, but in the history of Europe during the eighteenth century. I allude, of course, to the imminent collapse of the Prussian monarchy at the beginning of 1762—a catastrophe only and hardly averted by the enthusiastic devotion of the new Russian Emperor to Frederick the Great." Peter III. began to reign in January, 1762, and he was assassinated just after the middle of July. Thus his opportunity to influence the destiny of nations was limited by months, and even by weeks. While there has been no disposition on the part of historians to neglect the importance of Russia's *volte-face* during this reign, Mr. Bain is quite justified in stating that the episode has not yet been treated with any degree of fulness by English writers. Drawing from Russian sources, of which he gives a critical account, he has succeeded in closing up this gap. Although Peter's diplomacy is made the most conspicuous topic, there is a clear account of the measures and demeanor by which he aroused the hostility of his subjects, both gentle and simple. Under the circumstances his assassination was a foregone conclusion, and it excited no great horror. Catherine II., is, of course, a prominent figure, but Mr. Bain adds little to our present knowledge of her. As a monograph on the diplomatic history of 1762 this essay deserves to be known and used.

—'Thomas Wolsey, Legate and Reformer,' by Father Ethelred L. Taunton (Lane), is a book which is recommended at first glance by the beauty of its print and illustrations. Proceeding past these, it soon becomes clear that the author is a devoted admirer of Wolsey, of whom he says without qualification: "Wolsey stands out as the greatest statesman England has ever produced; and it is not going beyond what records reveal if we say that his was the master-mind of the age." Such a statement might call forth a vast amount of comment if one were not seeking merely to indicate the spirit in which a particular treatise is conceived. But it is not the political aspect of Wolsey's career which Father Taunton places in the foreground of his book. He is quite willing to accept Brewer's verdict on the secular work of the Cardinal. His own contribution to this period of Tudor history centres about Wolsey's ecclesiastical achievements. In other words, Father Taunton seeks to strengthen the position at precisely the point which has hitherto been deemed weakest. "In [Brewer's] 'The Reign of Henry VIII.,' Wolsey's work as an ecclesiastic is entirely passed over; and in all biographies, even the most recent, the same omission is to be found. This is strange, for, although Wolsey's name stands high as a statesman, he has as high a claim to be known as a great Churchman. He certainly need not fear an examination both close and severe, for he emerges from the ordeal with increased splendor." In coming to details, the question which naturally attracts the most notice is that of the Cardinal's attitude toward reform. As Father Taunton outlines his programme, it involved an improvement in the educational advantages of the clergy, the establishment of new bishoprics in the large towns, and a visitation of the monasteries. The need of dogmatic revision was apparently unrecognized. Father Taunton asks: "If in that hour of the Church's need, the clear-minded and far-seeing Wolsey had sat in St. Peter's chair, and had ruthlessly set his knife to cut away the abuses that were stifling life, might not the religious history of Europe have been a brighter page?" Here it is pretty plainly implied that Wolsey might have averted the Protestant revolution. He certainly was a clever statesman, and his ministry forms an era in the history of England's relations with the Continent, but something was required besides visitations and educational endowments to meet the religious crisis of the sixteenth century. Though Father Taunton speaks in a very candid way about many features of the situation, he does not seem to have a clear grasp of the main issue. At more than one point, also, the material appears to be thin and drawn out. Altogether, the present work falls somewhat below the standard which the same writer has set in his earlier books on the religious history of England.

—Prof. Charles Dejob of the University of Paris, whose Italian studies are for the most part distinguished for their erudition and acute criticism, has been doing much interesting work of late in connection with the types and characters which figure in the literature of France and Italy during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; and, in his 'Études sur la Tragédie' and 'Les Femmes dans la Comédie Française et Italienne au XVIIIe Siècle' (Paris: Colin), the evolution of these types in literature received serious attention for the first time. His latest addition to this series of studies, 'Les Professions et l'Opinion Publique dans la Littérature Française,' has just been reprinted from the *Revue d'Histoire Littéraire de la France*, the chief organ of French literary scholarship, in which it originally appeared. The interest of the artist in men, not merely as human beings, but as members of certain trades or professions, is here the central theme. Except in Homer, this interest is given little scope in Greek literature, and the rôle of the artisan is very slight in the Georgics of Virgil, in which the husbandman might easily have been expected to assume considerable prominence. M. Dejob indicates, briefly but trenchantly, how certain types originated in the literature of the Middle Ages, and were developed and crystallized during the Renaissance. Some of these were accepted by Molière; others, like the pedant and the braggart soldier, were eliminated by him from French comedy. The evolution of these types is carried by M. Dejob through the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, from Mercier and Diderot to Balzac and Dumas *fils*.

—Any one who examines closely the curves representing the varying spotted area of the sun will find that no two successive cycles are alike, either in area or in form. Individuality of cycle seems to be repeated after a certain time; and this peculiarity, coupled with a like variation in magnetic curves, together with suspected cycles in terrestrial phenomena, has led to a new investigation of the whole subject by Dr. W. J. S. Lockyer, assistant director of the Solar Physics Observatory, Kensington. Next to Schwabe, the eminent and original discoverer of sun-spot periodicity, over sixty years ago, comes the late Dr. Rudolph Wolf of Zürich, who, from an exhaustive study of the spots down to the year 1876, determined that these markings on the solar disk passed through nine complete cycles every century. But he was careful to state, also, that, while the average length of the period was eleven and one-ninth years, there might be variations of as much as two years from this value in individual cases. Into the character of these secondary variations, Dr. Lockyer has sought to penetrate; and he finds, first, that the actual epoch of maximum spots, relative to the preceding minimum, oscillates round the mean value, its greatest amplitude averaging 0.8 year. Finally he is led to the conclusion that, underlying the ordinary sun-spot period of about eleven years, there is another prominently marked cycle of more than three times its length, namely, thirty-five years. Not only does this cycle alter the time of occurrence of maxima in relation to preceding minima, but it is also responsible for changes in the total spotted area of the sun, from one eleven-year period to another. This secular period harmonizes completely with Brückner's well-established period of variation in the climates over the whole earth, and with Richter's observed variations of Alpine glaciers.

THROUGH RUSSIAN TURKESTAN.

À travers le Turkestan Russe. Par Hugues Krafft. With 265 illustrations from photographs by the author, and a map. Paris: Hachette. 1902. 4to.

This is a beautiful book to look at, without and within. It is finely bound, well printed on paper comfortable to eye and touch. Its heliogravure and in-text illustrations are perfect works of reproduction from uniformly good negatives. As a book to be read, to be learnt from, it is less praiseworthy; is, in fact, somewhat thin—the notes of a tourist rather than the observations of a traveller—pleasantly written, indeed, lucidly arranged, but not thorough in any respect. Yet with such and so many fine illustrations the text is of admittedly secondary importance. The plates with accompanying notes would have justified the volume's existence, and if the reader chooses to regard the text as mere notes to the plates, he will have small further cause for hostile criticism.

Turkestan (Russian and Chinese), and all the broad fesse of territory that traverses the great Asiatic shield between Siberia above and the Indies below, is a country of deserts and oases, of great plains and high mountain ranges. Perhaps in no brief phrase is the spirit of the region better expressed than in

> "With me along the strip of herbage strown
> That just divides the desert from the sown."

It is the juxtaposition of watered oases and desert settings that the traveller remembers as the essential quality of the land—the swift exchange of fertility for barrenness. No photographs and few descriptions can translate this effect for an untravelled reader. The long, burning desert must be traversed in physical weariness before the joy of the oasis can be known; and the confinement of the oasis must be experienced before the delightful freedom of the desert and the steppe can be realized. The true life of central Asia is in the exchange between "desert" and "sown." Turkestan,

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in this book, is all oases, all fertility, an umbrageous land, a garden full of houses, mosques, and ruins. Neither desert nor steppe enters its pages. There are none of the great expanses, blistering under the sunshine or swept by bitter winds, that the old travellers before railroad days made familiar to us in the tales of their sufferings. Nor are we shown many mountains in this region of ranges, only a peak or two in the background of Samarkand. We look in vain for the great glaciers, for the splintered rock-walls and mighty bastions of Turkestan's fortress enceinte. None of these things appear. The traveller went by train and stopped only at populated resorts, the centres of the larger, fertile areas; it is only of them, therefore, that he can tell us.

He chats pleasantly about the new Russian settlements beside the ancient cities, like the cantoonments in India, "toujours encadrés de végétation." Tashkent, he says, is most European, Samarkand prettiest. He chats, too, about the old cities, whereof Tashkent is the biggest, Samarkand the most utterly destroyed, in that awful three days of Russian fury about which so little was ever said. The old arts, we learn, are rapidly fading away, the old handicrafts disappearing, just as the bazaars are being knocked down to make way for wide straight open streets. Fortunately, the bazaars of Bokhara are still intact and beautiful as of old, but their day will come soon. Our grandchildren will hardly have a chance, in any part of the East, to behold the wonder of the ancient Oriental places of trade thronged with folk in all manner of costumes, and stricken by shafts of sunlight through holes in the roof. In the old independent days the turbulent little states of central Asia had their courts and their khans; and in each city was a fortress palace. Only the palace of Kokand remains, a poor thing, built crudely in the old style in mid-nineteenth century. The lost palaces in their day were doubtless splendid. Tamerlane lived in style, one may be sure; but of Tamerlane's abode no trace remains. There is a modern fort on its site.

In mosques and mosque ruins we are more fortunate. There are mosques of several kinds—ordinary places of worship, tomb-mosques, and university mosques (called Madrassahs). The university mosques were the most famous and the biggest, for, under Tamerlane and his fifteenth-century successors, Samarkand was made a great centre of Mussulman learning, and still retains living traditions of the sort. These great buildings—mosques of the three sorts—were far more numerous once than they are now. The earth has shaken many of them down in its uneasiness. Great overthrows have happened in late years and others are impending. There is the wonderful university mosque, Bibi Khanum, for instance, built by or in the time of Tamerlane out of the spoils of India. Little more remains of it but heaps of débris and one great arch, like New York's new cathedral in its embryo stage. Some day New York's cathedral will be a ruin in its turn—let us hope a ruin as venerated and as picturesque as Bibi Khanum. Who has not heard of the Gur Amir, wherein Tamerlane lies amidst his family and near the holy man whose words he reverenced? A superb blue dome, melon-ribbed, covers them. Some distance away is Shah Zinda, a royal cemetery or assemblage of tomb-mosques, built by Tamerlane and his successors of the fifteenth century. The three mosques of the Rigistan—the great square of Samarkand—must also be mentioned, one built in the fifteenth, the other two in the seventeenth century, showing a marked decadence. These are the buildings best illustrated in this book. We would gladly have sacrificed a number of the photographs of "ladies not in society" which follow, for more views of these splendid buildings, and especially for details of their wonderful decoration, now so rapidly falling into decay. All these mosques are built of gray, crude brick and adorned at important points with decoration of colored tiles. This was the style of Persia, borrowed by Iran from Mesopotamia, and first invented in ancient Babylonia.

If you wish to find what was the true local style of architecture, it is not to these royal buildings you must turn, but to the mosques of the smaller towns and villages. They are built of brick and have no tiles, but depend for decoration upon the porticos and galleries of wood attached to them. The Ferghana mosques of this type remind our author of certain Buddhist temples of China. To us they are strikingly reminiscent of the village mosques of the Hindu Kush and Karakoram valleys, such as one finds as far south as the ridge bounding the Vale of Kashmir and as far east as the Buddhist margin in Little Tibet. We were struck by the contrast between these and the Buddhist buildings, when erected within a few miles of one another. These small wooden and mud-brick mosques are in the true Central Asian style, faintly reminiscent of Greek buildings, one might say, but doubtless of purely local and independent origin. Their characteristic feature is a long wooden portico or veranda, running the whole length of the front of the edifice. Within, the roof is supported by rows of wooden columns, often remarkably slender and rather fantastically shaped, supporting beams and lined parallel to the portico. These little buildings, surrounded and overshadowed by trees, stand generally beside the small open place which is all the village can spare for assembly in the midst of its precious area of cultivable ground.

It is a great pity that the descriptions of mosques in this book are in no case accompanied by plans. The descriptions themselves are too vague to be of service alone, and the photographic illustrations, however beautiful, do not suffice for complete information. It is a further misfortune that the book is not supplied with an index. Such accurate information as it contains is so scattered about that the reader who thinks himself likely to refer to the volume at any future time is compelled to make a rough index for himself as he reads. To sum up, the book is a beautiful thing to look at, and a valuable body of fine photographic records of certain centres of population in Russian Turkestan, but it is neither profound in its learning nor wide in its observation of men and art. Still, it is a book for a book-lover to buy.

THE BOOK OF THE COURTIER.

The Book of the Courtier. By Count Baldesar Castiglione. Translated from the Italian and annotated by Leonard Eckstein Opdycke. With seventy-one portraits and fifteen autographs reproduced by Edward Bierstadt. Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. xiv, 439.

If the literary tastes of an age are as typical of it as its creative impulses or the great works of literature which mirror its various life, the future historian may find it not unworthy of his notice to consider the attractiveness of the Renaissance for the more exquisite of contemporary minds. The last thirty or forty years may, indeed, be said to have witnessed the "rediscovery" of the Renaissance, much in the same way as the Middle Ages were rediscovered by the earlier Romanticists of the century that has just passed. In the impulse given to this new interest, scholarship has done its share, but, in English-speaking countries at least, the name of Walter Pater must be associated with those studies which have tended more and more to give to this enthusiasm somewhat of the nature of an esoteric cult. The aristocratic temper of the times, the taste for luxury, the growth of the courtly spirit, and the new scientific ardor—all marking a reaction against the democratic ideas of the Revolution—have found in the period alike of Ariosto and Titian, of Machiavelli and Galileo, a reinforcement of their most intimate spiritual and æsthetic needs. Some of the typical books of the Renaissance have assumed anew the splendor and fame of classics, and of none is this more true than of the 'Cortegiano' of Castiglione. The Elizabethan version of Sir Thomas Hoby has been twice reprinted within a year, and a new English rendering, with annotations and a profusion of illustrations, is now presented to cultivated readers by Mr. Opdycke.

The 'Cortegiano' is a dialogue, in which the family and the retinue of the Duke of Urbino discuss the qualities of the perfect courtier. What is a courtier? What accomplishments should he possess? What is the purpose or aim of courtiership? These are the questions which the courtly interlocutors, the sprightly Emilia Pia, the Duchess Elisabeth Gonzaga, Giuliano de' Medici, Bembo, and a score of others, discuss and argue after dinner. Here the dialogue form is no mere Platonic or Ciceronian convention of the age, but gives the required opportunities for individual characterization, for *nuances* of thought and expression; and, in short, for all the artistic qualities which make of a mere social treatise a delicate and permanent work of art. These qualities are apparent in the most cursory perusal of the book itself, but some historical explanation is essential before the general reader can assume the point of view of the interlocutors, and find a more than perfunctory interest in a discussion of the courtier and of courtiership.

Each age, considering the eternal problem of the individual's relation to his social environment, develops its own ideal of perfect manhood, and more often leaves to a critical age the problem of formulating it. For secular society in the Middle Ages this problem is simple. There knighthood expresses the highest aspirations of social life. The infinite gradations of feudal society offered no common basis for individual perfection, and in the knight mediæval chivalry developed a visible symbol of ideal manhood. Forming part of a warrior class, the knight's virtues are martial virtues, courage, magnanimity, loyalty, courtesy; and of

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all these honor was the touchstone. But, being a child of his age, and therefore of the Church, the knight was not merely a soldier but a Christian soldier, and chivalry borrowed from religion some of its external rites and some of its sanctified spirit. By his profession called to all parts of the world, he was essentially a wanderer, and hence arose the bastard forms of knight-errantry; but his home life was passed at the feudal courts, and from this social life there sprang the finer developments of courtesy and the system of courtly love.

Here we find the point of departure for the ideal of the next age. Feudalism, with its innumerable courts and varying gradations of society, had disintegrated through internal corruption and external action. Political concentration was the result, and the countless castles of feudal lords ceased to be important social and military centres. The life of every state was focussed on a single prince and a single court, and here alone were the opportunities for individual preferment. These are historical commonplaces, but they indicate, as is well known, the conditions under which the courtier, the ideal man of the Renaissance, gradually developed. No longer merely a warrior like the knight, the courtier yet inherited some of the martial virtues of chivalry; and the knight's amusements, which had naturally been martial, became the fashionable amusements of the courtier. With more leisure, and a single centre of interest, it followed that the courtly graces, courtesy, chivalrous love, and the like, were still further developed, and loyalty to the prince took the place of devotion to a cause. The religious element was eliminated, and, more important still, Humanism added the further grace of culture, and fused the ideal of honor with the classical ideal of glory.

As knighthood had virtually been the creation of mediæval France, so courtiership was a product of Renaissance Italy, and of this ideal the 'Cortegiano' is the complete and certainly the noblest expression. The courtier, according to Castiglione, must be proficient in letters and arms, and in all the graces and accomplishments which form part of a refined and cultivated society. He must be a lover, for love is one of the highest virtues. All this and more he must be, not solely for the sake of his own individual *virtù*, but more especially for the sake of the prince at whose court he is a courtier. This is the ideal element in Castiglione's conception—that virtues and accomplishments alike are nothing unless, working through the prince, they accomplish moral ends. But this is perhaps the dream of an idealist, and the courtier as a type is rather a man in the universal cultivation of his accomplishments, like Castiglione himself—soldier, poet, courtier, and diplomat.

The 'Cortegiano' was published by Aldus in 1528, and its success was immediate, not only in Italy, but throughout Europe. The reason is simple. The Renaissance was just beginning to permeate Transalpine life, and the two gates to the Renaissance were Humanism and the courtly spirit. That Humanism alone was not sufficient is shown by the case of Germany, where there was no true Renaissance because the courtly spirit was absent. The Renaissance in Spain virtually begins with Boscan's classical rendering of the 'Cortegiano' in 1534, in France with Colin's in 1537, in England with Hoby's splendid version in 1561. Sir Philip Sidney consciously modelled his life according to the ideals of the book, and, like Castiglione, he represents the full flower of courtiership in its harmonious development of graces, accomplishments, and virtues.

Sidney and Castiglione were both beautiful spirits, yet there never dwelt on sea or land a courtier like that in the mind of either. Such a courtier was, after all, an ideal, and many cultivated men felt how far short of this ideal fell the actual life of courts. Spenser, in one of the noblest passages of the 'Faerie Queene' (book ii., canto iii., stanzas 37-42), rejects some of the essential elements of the courtly ideal, returns to the finer spirit of chivalry, and recommends the quest of honor "in woods, in waves, in warres." The ideal no longer chimed with men's conceptions of perfect manhood, and Spain, in introducing new modes of honor, courtesy, and love, was next to add its share to the spiritual life of Europe. It is beyond our province to show how the gallant succeeded the courtier; how the former was first completely developed in France from the beginning of the seventeenth century; and how, at the Hôtel de Rambouillet and the salons of other women, the martial element was almost wholly discarded for an ideal of gallantry and culture. It is also beyond our province to show how, after dominating social life for two centuries, the gallant succumbed to the democratic influences of the Revolution, and in the new conception of the "gentleman" England added to the ideal of honor, which expresses what is due to ourselves, the nobler ideal of duty, or what is due to others. Of all these shifting conceptions of knight, courtier, gallant, and gentleman, the second alone has received adequate expression in an interpretative work of literature—the ideal of the courtier in the 'Cortegiano' of Castiglione.

Nothing of all this, however, appears in Mr. Opdycke's volume, which suffers in this way from the lack of an introductory essay. The critical apparatus at the end of the book consists of an excellent bibliography, a two-page life of Castiglione, and about a hundred pages of notes. The last, which are chiefly explanatory of the proper names in the text, make us wonder what Mr. Opdycke conceives to be the duty of an editor, or what audience he is addressing, when he thinks it necessary to devote rather long notes to such names as Catullus (p. 346), Sappho and Pindar (p. 391), Aristotle (p. 414), Aspasia (p. 361), Procrustes, Diomed, and Antæus (p. 412), Prometheus (p. 408), Themistocles, Lycurgus, Hasdrubal, Sardanapalus, Henry VIII., Pygmalion, and a host of other names familiar to the schoolboy of twelve or thirteen. Fully a third of the annotative matter is thus made up, and much of the rest is of rather flimsy scholarship. Serafino dell' Aquila (p. 373) is, according to Mr. Opdycke, "identified by Cian" as a forgotten Neapolitan poet, in the same way, we suppose, that Mr. Opdycke himself has "identified" Aristotle and Henry VIII. The 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili' (p. 405) "is said to be," what every scholar ought to know it is, a mixture of Humanism and allegory.

Mr. Opdycke succeeds better as a translator. His rendering is fluent and at times not without grace; literally, it is accurate, but the accuracy is of the sort that can most easily be attained with the aid of an Italian reviser. The delicate shades of Castiglione's thought and expression Mr. Opdycke does not often render. A single example of this (pp. 288, 289) will suffice. In Bembo's splendid Platonic rhapsody on love towards the end of the 'Cortegiano,' man is credited with three modes of perception: sense, from which springs the physical appetite, which man has in common with brutes; reason, from which arises choice (*elezione*), man's natural condition; and intellect, from which springs will, by which he is able to commune with the angels. Naturally in the mediocre stage of reason, man can choose between brute sense and angelic will; or, as Mr. Opdycke translates the passage, "Being by nature rational and placed as a mean between these two extremes, man is able at will [*per sua elezione*], by descending to sense or mounting to intellect, to turn his desires now in the one direction and now in the other." "At will" is not an inaccurate translation of the original phrase, which means more strictly "by his own choice"; but it should have been perceived how the use of the word "will" creates a confusion of the second stage, or choice, with the third stage, or will.

He must be a churlish and ungrateful reviewer, however, who would not thank Mr. Opdycke for the taste and care exhibited in other than scholarly matters. This is a beautiful book, bound in full vellum, stamped in gold with Castiglione's seal, charmingly printed by the De Vinne Press on the richest paper, and profusely illustrated with autographs and an interesting array of contemporary portraits. Binding, typography, proof-reading, illustrations, and general arrangement alike display the zeal and the discretion with which the book has been put together. The illustrations really illustrate, and in themselves make the book worth possessing. But this, after all, is the mood of dilettantism—to consider the externals with infinite care and to allow content and spirit to take care of themselves. Or, as the English poet for whom the 'Cortegiano' meant most, has put it:

"For like a child that some fair book doth find,
With gilded leaves or colored vellum plays,
Or, at the most, on some fine picture stays,
But never heeds the fruit of writer's mind."

Lincoln's Plan of Reconstruction. By Charles H. McCarthy. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1901.

For many reasons the present time may be regarded as favorable for writing the history of Reconstruction. The anger and hatred aroused by the civil war have burned themselves out, and sectional jealousy and hostility have ceased to be openly manifested, even if they have not altogether disappeared. At the same time, there are many living who personally recollect the controversies of that troubled period, and who will read whatever is written of them with enlightened and critical interest. We cannot, however, agree with Mr. McCarthy in the view that his work, so far at least as concerns any logical exposition, conducts the reader over untravelled ground. In fact, we are rather inclined to regard the work as peculiarly weak in logical exposition, while the ground over which it conducts us, even if untravelled, is to a great extent not worth travelling over. The space devoted specifically to the exposition of

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Lincoln's plan is small, and we learn neither how far that plan was deliberately thought out, nor whether Lincoln would have been likely to modify it because of opposition in his party.

We should have been glad, also, to have some comparative estimate of the different plans of construction, some criticism from a constitutional point of view, in place of the minute detail of incidents which, while exciting enough, are not indispensable to our comprehension of the period. Mr. McCarthy hardly appreciates the distinction between history and annals, and he has not acquired the art of condensing debates. A great deal of space is wasted on utterly unimportant things. Why should we have to read that "Mr. Perry of New Jersey spoke of the duration of the war, predicted the general bankruptcy which its great expense would bring about, and calculated that in eleven years the cost of the war would equal the assessed value of property"? Or that "Fernando Wood declared that he had listened with interest and pleasure to words of conciliation from the South," and was followed by Mr. Le Blond of Ohio, whose speech added nothing of value to what had been said before? Our thoughts are not widened by information that "the speech of Mr. Williams was marked by considerable fluency," or that Senator Trumbull replied to Senator Howe, who was not in his seat. We might as well be told what o'clock it was, and whether the day was sunny. History is not written in this way.

We comment on these defects with severity because they spoil what might have been a good book. They fatigue and distract the attention. Had Mr. McCarthy reduced the bulk of his extracts one-half, he would have doubled their value. Had he worked over his notes, and given us their real meaning, we should have seen clearly the great issues, instead of having to grope after them. Nevertheless, we must acknowledge our indebtedness for a useful compilation, and when we have winnowed out the chaff, we find a substantial residuum.

The theory adopted by Mr. Lincoln was necessary, in his opinion, as a logical justification of the war. In his view, to assert that the Southern States were no longer in the Union, was to make "the fatal admission that States, whenever they please, may, of their own motion, dissolve their connection with the Union." He did not think the Union could survive that admission, saying: "If that be true, I am not President; these gentlemen are not Congress." He justified his emancipation proclamation as an act of war, but did not think that Congress had any Constitutional power to prohibit slavery in the States. Hence he was anxious to have slavery prohibited by Constitutional amendment, and, in order to obtain the required number of votes, he desired to restore loyal government in some of the States. This he thought he could do under the clause which declares that the United States shall guarantee the States a republican form of government, and he used his power as commander of the army to set up governments whose *de-facto* existence might in the rapid course of events cause their *de-jure* weakness to be overlooked.

According to this theory, a government established by a very small minority of the people of any State might be republican in form. In his message of December 8, 1863, Mr. Lincoln said, "An attempt to guarantee and protect a revived State Government, constructed in whole or in preponderating part from the very element against whose hostility and violence it is to be protected, is absurd." But he was willing to allow those who had participated in the rebellion, with certain exceptions, to take an oath of allegiance and of recognition of various acts of Congress and Executive proclamations, and thereupon to take part in restoring republican government. He announced that whenever, in any State in rebellion, one-tenth of the number of voters at the general election of 1860 should form a government which was in harmony with this oath, he would recognize it as the true government of that State. Governments created after this plan in Tennessee, Louisiana, and Arkansas were held by him to be legal. He appears to have considered that, as Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the United States, he might, while war continued, guarantee republican government without the aid of Congress.

President Johnson, it may be observed at this point, tried to carry out this theory after the war was over, and did what Lincoln had called absurd in practically allowing new governments to be formed by "unreconstructed" rebels. The fact that peace had been restored made the theory untenable, if Congress refused to concur with the President. The "guarantee" of the Constitution was to be given by the United States, and not by the Executive alone; and while the Executive guarantee might suffice in time of war without confirmation by Congress, it was void in time of peace when repudiated by that body.

Probably Lincoln would have had his way if he had lived; and it might have been better for the South and for the negro. He was determined that slavery should be ended, and would have been glad to have the suffrage given to such of the blacks as were qualified. In the end, political power gravitated to the most powerful class, and the Congressional scheme of reconstruction came to grief. When the former rebels finally grasped the reins of government, they had been exasperated by the rule of the "carpetbaggers," and took revenge on the blacks, who had been demoralized by having the responsibilities of government thrust upon them. In fact, the Congressional theory was impracticable. If the Southern States had "committed suicide," and were to be treated as conquered territory, they ought to have had a military government. Governments by minority rule could not be stable, and they required military support from the beginning.

Lincoln's governments, it is true, had this weakness, but they would have served the great end of getting rid of slavery by formally Constitutional methods; and this was what Lincoln chiefly desired. Probably he overestimated the number of loyalists in the South; but it is at least conceivable that the conservative elements in society might have taken up the work of government in better spirit on the close of the war than after a period of outrageous misrule. No doubt there would have been trouble with Congress; but Lincoln was so strong with the people that he might have prevailed. He had displayed his policy; he had practically vetoed a Congressional measure adverse to it; and he had been triumphantly reëlected. His death and the folly of his successor gave his opponents their opportunity; but the manner in which they used it does not fall within the scope of this book, and need not here be reviewed.

Memoirs and Letters of Sir James Paget. Edited by Stephen Paget, One of his Sons. With portraits and other illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. Pp. 429.

The name of Sir James Paget has been familiar as that of the great surgeon and perhaps the pioneer pathologist of England, whose writings marked the transition from the older to the newer doctrines, such as had then been heard of in Germany alone. Few persons, however, have been aware of the interest which attaches to his early years, and the portion of the above Memoir which treats of this period is that which is likely to excite special attention in the lay reader. Although Paget's life was passed so largely in seclusion and was barren of striking social or political "events," the narrative of it reveals to an unusual degree the building up and working out of a remarkably fine, strong character and a very keen intelligence. The history of privations borne with constant and cheerful patience, of unremitting and well-directed labor, and of final success—not unsought, indeed, but which would not have been welcomed had it not been felt to have been fairly won—is warmed and lightened by the story of domestic problems, sorrows, and joys. As one reads, it is easy to feel himself bodily transported to the quiet quadrangle of St. Bartholomew's, where so many of Paget's early years were spent, and impossible not to feel morally lifted to a high plane of thought. Paget's characteristics of strength, purity, fine intelligence, and balanced judgment were shared by his parents and his brothers, so that this was, in a great measure, a case where the stem was strong because the root was sound and the stock good. Nevertheless, it would be to miss the moral of his life if we overlooked the extent to which incessant training and cultivation were responsible for each stage in the continuous progress.

Born in 1814, at Yarmouth, he spent the first four and a half years of his medical life as apprentice to Mr. Costerton, an active and energetic local practitioner, and next went on to London, intending to pass a limited period in further study at St. Bartholomew's, one of the several London medical schools which were then on a relatively poor basis, and were struggling with difficulties within and without to maintain their footing. Here, even while still a student, he worked so ardently that he soon became recognized as a fit candidate for recognition and for promotion, which, however, was long and weary years in coming. Meantime his father's resources failed, and it devolved more and more upon the sons, themselves hardly earning more than enough for a bare subsistence, to keep the family in comfort, and to pay the debts which soon arose. Not until 1861—that is, until nearly thirty years after Paget's first

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arrival in London—were these debts finally paid. That whole period was one of continuous struggle, lightened by many encouragements, nevertheless, and by the growing recognition of Paget's merits among scientific men. He had, too, the unfailing help of Miss North, to whom he was engaged for eight years, and whom he married so soon as his appointment to the wardenship of the collegiate department of Bartholomew's Hospital (a department instituted largely at his solicitation) gave him the means of looking a little further ahead. From first to last his relations with his wife were remarkably happy. "No human wisdom," he says, "could have devised a step so wise as was this rash engagement," contracted at a time when his future, to judge from outward signs, was wholly uncertain.

It is noteworthy that the ambitious young student began very early to observe for himself, and throughout his life he prized the memory of the influences that had fostered this tendency. As an amateur botanist, he had acquired the habits of careful observation and preparation of specimens which enabled him to put the museum work of St. Bartholomew's on a new basis, and had gained a confidence in his power to *see* things which other people only *looked at*, that remained one of his strongest scientific characteristics, and made him the first English pathologist of his day. From being Curator of the Museum he was advanced, after several disappointments, to a lectureship, then to a wardenship, finally to the assistant-surgeoncy. At last there came the long anticipated period of private practice, with its early years of patient waiting and its final shower of honors. During the seven years after obtaining his diploma, his largest income from practice was £23 13s., and not until he had been a surgeon sixteen years had it ever exceeded £100. Finally, it began to rise, and went on increasing until it had exceeded £10,000 a year. Then, he says, he gave up operating, and it fell at once to £7,000 and slowly decreased further.

The lighter phases of life found little place in the midst of Paget's arduous toils. Even as a boy he had cared more for his botany than for his sports, and in his maturer years the pleasures of London went on around him almost without his knowledge. Nevertheless, he had a disposition sensitive to pleasure as well as to pain, and was ever equipped for using each moment of leisure for enjoyment of every quiet sort that came to his hand. In later years, when for the first time his income allowed him to take vacations, his pleasure in the sight of foreign lands was unbounded. Obscurely as he lived when young, the wiser men whom he met picked him out very early as one bound to win in the race, and, before he died, his list of friends, both personal and scientific, was long and varied.

This volume consists largely of an autobiographical memoir, written when Paget was about seventy years old, and of extracts from his letters. The contributions made by his son carry on the story interestingly and intelligently, except that the changes of style and the overlapping are occasionally somewhat disconcerting. The make-up of the book, and the illustrations, are admirable.

Frederick the Great on Kingcraft. From the original MS. With reminiscences and Turkish stories. By Sir J. William Whittall, President of the British Chamber of Commerce of Turkey. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. Pp. viii, 236.

The title of this book is of the kind that reverses the real contents. What we actually have in it is a very living, garrulous, and amusing account of an English family in the Levant, how they came to be there, what happened to them there, and how Turkey and the Turks strike the writer. Early in the last century his grandfather settled in Smyrna and married the daughter of a French refugee. Through his marriage he was brought into close relations with France and French refugees of all shades of respectability and politics, and especially with Marshal Savary, the Duke of Rovigo, who was thrice in hiding in his house in Smyrna. On another side this marriage made him the head of a Venetian family which dated back to the twelfth century. With such ramifications and connections, the life even of an English nineteenth-century merchant could be eventful enough. And so, between the wars of Napoleon, the perpetual Turkish squabbles, and the revolutionary movement of 1848, it was in this case. Of it, however, we are not given here any detailed chronicle, but simply such scraps of reminiscence as an old man might jot down or tell over for the amusement of his descendants. So Richard Cobden and the Sultan Abd al-Aziz, Fouché and Savary, the Prussian navy when it consisted of a single vessel and had a Dutch admiral and a Swedish captain, and, above all, Turks—from brigands in simple to High Commissioners *in excelsis*—roll along anecdotally through these pages. The effect is of after-dinner talk, and has salt of its own. The later part drifts over, as such talk naturally would, from anecdotes to tales, edifying and otherwise, scraps of folklore, of Turkish popular wisdom in parabolic form, and, especially, of selections from the stories of the undying and inexhaustible Khoja Nasr ad-Din, the national butt, buffoon, and philosopher of the Osmanlis—Handy Andy, Aesop and Rabelais, with a squinting brain. All goes to illustrate Turkish thought and ways, and for that will be much more to the purpose than many learned volumes. Only, Sir William Whittall must not think that his stories are new outside of Turkey. They have probably all appeared already in English in some form or other. Nor must he think that his facetious Yankee had necessarily plundered him of the story of Hassan. The hunchback who falls among fairies, dances with them, shouting a chant of the days of the week, and is rewarded by losing his hump, is a *lieu commun* in folklore, from Brittany to China.

But, for all this, the title has a fair justification. On the cover the Prussian eagle glares and gasps in gold, and, certainly, part of the book is calculated to make all loyal Prussians glare and gasp too. The notorious 'Matinées,' truly or falsely of Frederick the Great, have often been printed before, but never by an acknowledged editor from a known MS. with an authenticated genealogy and with *bona fides* guaranteed. Up to a certain point, the *bona fides* in this case cannot be doubted. That Savary in 1816, when he was in hiding at Smyrna, showed the grandfather of the present editor a MS. of the 'Matinées' and allowed him to take a copy of it; that he professed to have stolen that MS. from Frederick's apartment at Sans Souci when he was there in 1807 with Napoleon; that the present edition is a faithful reproduction of that MS.—all that may be accepted as certain. The point is the *bona fides* of Savary. To his credit is to be set that he was ashamed of the theft, and exacted a promise that the MS. should not be published in the lifetime of either of them; also, that he evidently believed it to be a MS. of the first importance, for he carried it with him even when an otherwise empty-handed fugitive. If Savary was himself deceived, then the problem remains how this MS. came to lie in the writing-table drawer of Frederick, in his apartment where everything had been religiously respected since his death.

So far only, this book puts the controversy on a new footing. The matter of internal evidence remains as before. We have still our choice between Carlyle's immaculate Frederick and the author of these cynical and worldly-wise counsels. Carlyle's hero-king, it is true, is fast fading as his Cromwell has faded, and it is not now so difficult to bear up against the lurid rhetoric and ponderous sarcasm with which he assailed the 'Matinées' and all who were foolish enough to read them. Rhetoric passes, but facts remain, and the present edition undoubtedly adds to the burden of facts adverse to Carlyle's conception. And there is, too, the never answered question, Where, in the eighteenth century, was the man who could have created this character of a pseudo-Frederick?

The Ethnic Trinities and their Relations to the Christian Trinity: A Chapter in the Comparative History of Religions. By Levi Leonard Paine, Waldo Professor of Ecclesiastical History in Bangor Theological Seminary. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

Like our author's 'Critical History of Trinitarianism,' this is an astonishing book to proceed from the Professor of Ecclesiastical History in a theological school which has had the reputation, heretofore, of being unspotted from the world of modern thought. The heresy of Professor Gilbert's book, which cost him his chair in the Chicago Theological Seminary, was inappreciable in comparison with the heresy of Professor Paine's, which compares the Christian Trinity with the ethnic trinities, to the former's partial disadvantage; views the Bible as a purely human collection of imperfect writings; regards the wonder-stories attaching to the birth and death of Jesus as deserving no credence; assigns to Jesus a purely human nature; and, in short, denies to Christianity any supernatural character whatsoever. Interesting and important as the book is, considered as the individual product of a learned orthodox professor, it is much more so considered as a sign of the times, for it is no isolated product, though it is marked by a preëminent frankness and audacity. The wonder is how long the process can continue without some realignment of the theological forces such as that which followed a similar condition of affairs some eighty years ago. The trouble seems to be that there is not now any party relatively

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orthodox enough to put on the screws and squeeze out the heretics.

Quite apart from its significance in this regard, and its demand for a new Christianity that shall be wholly unsectarian and undogmatic, Professor Paine's study of the various ethnic trinities is of great value, and the more entertaining because he does not resist the temptation to give an occasional side glance across from India and Persia to the "social trinity" which is a late device for saving something from the general wreck. We have, first, a "Preliminary Survey," which is a brilliant summary of the main positions of the book. This is followed by a chapter on "The Special Causes of the Rise of the Ethnic Trinities." We have here a denial of any primitive sense of the sacredness of certain numbers, in particular the number three, or any crude perception that the godhead has necessarily some kind of three-fold character. It is at this point that the "social trinity" is denounced as "the most illogical and fatuous" of all trinitarian theories. There is certainly, thinks Professor Paine, no evidence that such considerations had weight with the framers of the ethnic trinities. His own persuasion is that these were naturalistic, and that generative and mediatorial ideas were dominant in them. This opinion is worked out carefully and persuasively. A very interesting particular is that of the occasional transposition of the different members of these trinities. The son, especially, has a tendency to assume the father's place. We are advised that the Christian Trinity has exhibited a similar tendency, the Son displacing the Father in popular reverence, and (in Roman Catholic worship) the Virgin gaining on the Son and quite obliterating the Holy Spirit. We read of a Roman Catholic movement, now on foot, to place the Virgin formally on a level with the members of the Trinity, making of it a quaternity of which the Virgin would practically be the head.

The Hindu Brahmanic trinity has a chapter to itself; so, too, the Persian Zoroastrian. The Zoroastrian development is particularly interesting. Professor Paine does not incline to the opinion of Darmesteter that Zoroaster was a mythical character. Here the trinitarian development was never quite complete. The idea once commonly entertained by Avestan scholars, that the groundwork of Parseeism was monotheistic, is discredited. Polytheism is the soil from which trinitarian conceptions naturally spring. We have an apparent exception in Christianity, but it is only apparent, because the Christian trinity was a Greek idea engrafted on a Jewish stalk. Moreover, its determinative antecedent, the Plotinian trinity, was hardly an ethnic trinity at all, but a private speculation, at once deriving from Plato and distorting him.

A chapter on the Greek Homeric trinity is of surpassing interest, especially where it treats of the Odyssey, to which Professor Paine brings a glowing admiration. In the Iliad we have a second trinity emerging from the background of a first, and in the Odyssey we have a third. In a comparison of the Virgin Mary to Athene, we have one of Professor Paine's most characteristic remarks. It is that "the same historical process which overthrows the faith in Mary as the virgin mother and the queen of heaven must overthrow the kindred doctrine of Christ's deity." The Greek philosophic trinities next receive consideration, the Plotinian having a chapter to itself. Professor Paine's intellectual engagement with this, while holding it to have been the baleful source from which the Augustinian (pantheistic) trinity derived, is a charming paradox. It is here that Professor Paine parts company with Prof. A. V. G. Allen and others, contending that what they regard as the merit of Athanasius was the defect of Augustine.

In a second division of his book, Professor Paine considers the relations of the Christian trinity to the ethnic trinities. The external relations were through Judaism to the Avesta, and through Justin, Origen, Athanasius, Augustine, "first of all philosophical thinkers," to Greek philosophy and mythology. Coming to the internal relations, resemblances between the Christian trinity and the ethnic trinities are found to be more in evidence than differences. Of these last, "the raising of Christ from the position of a man to that of a divine being" is marked as the most radical. Everything up to this point has had for its object the discrediting of the forms of thought which are elaborated with so much intellectual sympathy. The promise of the future, we are assured, is that of an undogmatic gospel of the spirit, independent of all creeds and forms, a gospel of love to God and man. Love, truth, and freedom are the constitutive members of its glorious trinity. We read in conclusion of "The Unreadiness of Christendom for the Fulfilment of its Mission," and of the perils that beset organized Christianity. These are predominantly ignorance and insincerity. It is a terrible indictment that is brought against the ministers and churches under the second head. What Coleridge called "orthodox lying for God" has perhaps never before been so cruelly alleged by an accredited teacher of orthodoxy in one of its theological schools.

The great modern event for Professor Paine is the publication of Darwin's 'Origin of Species' in 1859, and there is something slightly dogmatic in his treatment of evolution, as if it were already a finished doctrine to which nothing can be added and from which nothing can be taken away.

British Vegetable Galls: An Introduction to their Study. By Edward T. Connold, Honorary General Secretary to the Hastings and St. Leonard's Natural History Society. Illustrated with 130 full-page plates and 27 smaller drawings. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

This work belongs to a type of useful popular treatises much more common in England than elsewhere. The author tells us in his preface why he was constrained to write, and his statement applies to almost all similar compositions:

"For several years past it has been one of my favorite pastimes to collect vegetable galls and to observe the many peculiarities connected with their growth. The accumulation of a large number of specimens and a mass of notes resulting from these researches has awakened the desire to arrange them in book form."

The volume embodies, therefore, the results of a large amount of loving labor by one who does not profess to be a specialist. It is plainly designed to present in an attractive form the facts and phenomena which have chiefly interested him. With the abundant resources of modern photographic reproduction at his command, he has made an uncommonly pleasing volume. It is not easy to see in what way the illustrations could have been improved. They are very telling and are beautifully printed. The text in some places is unnecessarily obscure. For instance, p. 36, we read "Fungi, or Fungus. Of the known species none is excessively destructive as regards its ravages upon the food of man." Unquestionably the author alludes here to the fungi which produce gall-like distensions of vegetable tissues; but as the statement stands, it is incorrect, for it leaves out of account the many blights, mildews, rusts, smuts, and the like, which constantly threaten the plants yielding human food, and refers only to the few fungi which injure the fruits of our plums, and so on. But in a non-scientific book such statements are not likely to lead the reader astray; he can make use of the charming plates for purposes of identification of the gall-like objects gathered in a stroll.

Galls present many points of extreme interest, and well repay the trouble of examination. Take, for instance, the commonest case of all: an insect pierces the tissues of a twig or leaf, and there deposits an egg. The effrontery of the procedure is beyond words. The plant is helpless and can make no resistance at all. It has had thrust upon it a foreign object, with which it has nothing in common, either in structure or in mode of life. Now what the plant undertakes to do is to treasure the egg or eggs in a most unselfish fashion. It freely contributes of its substance material to construct a temporary lodging-place for the foundling, whereas the foundling cannot, either in its early or its later stages, contribute anything to the plant. Instead of being of any use to the plant, so far as is known, the presence of the egg and of the hatched egg is a disturbance of no small degree in the life of the attacked twig or leaf. Some of the gall-homes, as they have been called, are of great complexity, and in not a few instances they may be fairly regarded as beautiful, both inside and out.

It is to be hoped sincerely that Mr. Connold's charming plates of the more common of the British galls may lead to a wider popular interest in the galls of our own trees and shrubs. Certainly those who are inclined to collect and study them can, with this book in hand, have no excuse for not understanding how to collect and how to photograph them. In fact, the directions err perhaps a trifle on the side of being too explicit, if this is ever possible. For example, there are photographs of "a long strip of black cloth . . . serving the purpose of a pincushion," and of "the padding of cloth upon which specimens are to be pinned," and of "string, useful in numerous ways," and of "three ordinary wooden broom-handles fastened to a five-inch triangular platform," and also of "a two-foot length of broom-handle which slides up or down through the top platform."

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Romance of the Renaissance Châteaux. By Elizabeth W. Champney. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Two winters ago we had from Mrs. Champney the 'Romance of the Feudal Châteaux,' and now there comes to us the second series, whose title is given above. Each book contains a number of full-page illustrations—the present one, six photogravures and about thirty half-tones; the subjects of each class being partly architectural and partly the reproduction of paintings, either portraits or modern pictures of history or legend. The latter will be, of course, well known to most visitors. They are such as Lenhardt's "Michelangelo at the Death-bed of Vittoria Colonna," Delaroche's "Assassination of the Duc de Guise," and the frontispiece, Comte's "Meeting of Henry III. and the Duc de Guise" at the foot of the staircase at Blois, with the scowling partisans on either side contrasting with the smiling ceremonial of the two chief actors. As for the architectural views, to a person who has made a study of such things the greater number will be fairly well known, but perhaps not all.

Though the book pretends to have to do with châteaux, it has little to say of them, dealing exclusively with fantastical legends of the curious epoch during which the Renaissance châteaux were built. Whether the telling of the tales is left to an imaginary Jean Goujon, the sculptor, or is ascribed directly to some modern housekeeper who opens an old mansion for the authoress, the stories are equally devoid of historical truth. The same remoteness from it which makes it possible to speak of the two great cardinals whose statues kneel in Rouen Cathedral as if they had "Amboise" for their family name, appears in every page of the book. There is no illusion; and if that be undesirable, then there is no historical accent. One thing or the other: we should either be transported to the sixteenth century, and believe that the story is being told us by the contemporary who seems to be telling it, or else it should be told from the point of view of the modern who looks with some admiration, but with more critical disapproval, upon the daring and artistic, but cruel and treacherous, nobility with whom these legends deal. The whole effort here is to make the stories seem ancient, to seem of the sixteenth century indeed; and a singular effort at antique simplicity of language in the English is used to correspond in a way with the supposed French of the time—but nothing could be less convincing. The stories can be read by one who will have romance at any price; otherwise the book can be disregarded except for the illustrations as above.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abernethy, J. W. American Literature. Maynard, Merrill & Co. $1.10.
Bacon, B. W. The Sermon on the Mount. Macmillan. $1.
Ballagh, J. C. A History of Slavery in Virginia. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. $1.50.
Bridge, Norman. The Rewards of Taste, and Other Essays. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.
Bruce, W. S. The Formation of Christian Character. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Burnet, Joannes. Platonis Res Publica. Henry Frowde. $1.25.
Campbell, D. H. A University Text-Book of Botany. Macmillan. $4.
Carmichael, Montgomery. The Lady Poverty. London: John Murray; New York: Tennant & Ward.
Catalogues des Tableaux de Maitres Anciens et Modernes, Composant la Collection de Feu M. Edmond Huybrechts. Anvers: F. Delehaye & Fils; New York: Arthur Tooth & Sons.
Clodd, Edward. Thomas Henry Huxley. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Colcock, Annie T. Margaret Tudor. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.
Comments of a Countess. John Lane.
Condict, Alice B. Old Glory and the Gospel in the Philippines. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Darwin, Charles. On the Origin of Species. Unit Library. 11d.
Davidson, A. B. The Book of the Prophet Isaiah. (Temple Bible.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Davidson, Augusta M. C. Translations from Lucian. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Deveron, Hugh. Songs of the Sahkohnagas. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Eldridge, J. L. What Think Ye of Christ? Abbey Press. $1.
Elwell, J. B. Bridge: Its Principles and Rules of Play. Scribners. $1.25.
Emerson, R. W. English Traits. Unit Library. 5d.
Emerson, Edwin, jr. A History of the Nineteenth Century Year by Year. 3 vols. P. F. Collier & Son.
Fitch, Clyde. Capt. Jinks of the Horse Marines. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Flagg, Isaac. A Writer of Attic Prose. American Book Co. $1.
Forsyth, P. T. Religion in Recent Art. Edwin S. Gorham. $3.
Four-Place Logarithmic Tables. H. Holt & Co.
Fowler, W. W. More Tales of the Birds. Macmillan. $1.
Fragments from Fénelon concerning Education. Edwin S. Gorham. 50 cents.
Gauss, K. F. General Investigations of Curved Surfaces of 1827 and 1825. (Translated by J. C. Morehead and A. M. Hiltebeitel.) Princeton (N. J.): The Princeton University Library. $1.75.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. Unit Library. 9½d.
Grafton, C. C. Pusey and the Church Revival. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co.
Greenleaf, Sue. Liquid from the Sun's Rays. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Grove, Lady. Seventy-one Days' Camping in Morocco. Longmans, Green & Co.
Hale, E. E. The Man without a Country. (Birthday edition.) The Outlook Co. $1.
Hastings, Gilbert. Siena: Its Architecture and Art. London: The De la More Press. 3s. 6d.
Helps, Arthur. The Spanish Conquest in America. Vol. II. John Lane. 3s. 6d.
Hempel, Walther. Methods of Gas Analysis. (Translated by L. M. Denis.) Macmillan. $2.25.
Hill, F. T. The Minority. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Hope, Laurence. India's Love Lyrics. London: William Heinemann; New York: John Lane.
Hulbert, W. D. Forest Neighbors. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Jeremias, Alfred. The Babylonian Conception of Heaven and Hell. London: David Nutt. 1s.
Judd, D. H. That Old Kitchen Stove. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Kensington, Cathmer. Glenwood. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Ledding, J. D. Garden-Craft Old and New. John Lane.
Mabry, W. D. When Love is King. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Malone, J. S. Guided and Guarded. Abbey Press. $1.25.
McDaniel, H. P. War Poems, 1861-1865. Abbey Press. $1.
Monroe, Forest. Maid of Montauk. William R. Jenkins. $1.
Naval Actions and Operations against Cuba and Porto Rico, 1593-1815. Boston: Military Historical Society.
Nott, C. C. The Seven Great Hymns of the Mediæval Church. New ed. Edwin S. Gorham. $1.
Poynter, E. Frances. Michael Ferrier. Macmillan. $1.50.
Reed, Edwin. Bacon and Shake-speare Parallelisms. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. $2.50.
Reed, Edwin. Francis Bacon our Shake-speare. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. $2.
Schröer, Arnold. Chr. Fr. Grieb's Dictionary of the English and German Languages. Vol. I. Henry Frowde.
Shackleton, Robert. Many Waters. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Sheppard, Edgar. The Old Royal Palace of Whitehall. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.50.
Stead, Alfred. Japan To-day. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Sterne, Lawrence. A Sentimental Journey through France and Italy. Unit Library. 1s. 3d.
Stratemeyer, Edward. Lost on the Orinoco. (Pan-American Series.) Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Tate, Henry. Aaron Crane. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Thackeray, F. St. J., and Stone, E. D. Florilegium Latinum: Victorian Poets. (The Bodley Anthologies.) John Lane.
The Catholic. John Lane.
Witmer, Lightner. Analytical Psychology. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Wyatt, Lucy M. L. Constance Hamilton. Abbey Press. 50 cents.

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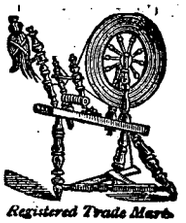

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